

The Nation.

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The Week.

Some of the desperate shifts resorted to at the eleventh hour by the enemies of Cuba's welfare are sufficient to show that they know their cause to be failing. The Speaker is reported to have warned the President of the bad political consequences of keeping faith with Cuba. It may give the next House to the Democrats. To this the ready retort would be that an even surer way of giving it to them would be to exhibit the Republican majority as a set of protection-ridden poltroons; but we suspect that Mr. Henderson got a sharper and more scornful reply than this if he tried to frighten Mr. Roosevelt away from a moral position by threats of what might happen if he did not run ignominiously from his own words. More ingenious, but equally futile, is the other idea of clapping a countervailing duty on German and Austrian sugar, and so giving the Cubans a practical differential. Aside from the difficulty of doing so legally, the notion of deliberately entering upon a fierce tariff war with Germany and Austria in order to avoid keeping our promises to Cuba, is one which might be entertained in Bedlam, but certainly never will be in the White House.

Tax-reduction is an undoubted and imperative necessity, yet we cannot think the bill reported by the Ways and Means Committee for repealing war taxes altogether wise, either in manner or matter. Say what Chairman Payne may, the suspicion will remain that this suddenly devised bill of his had a sinister relation to the project for the relief of Cuba. It may have been intended, first of all, to get in the way of Cuban legislation and block it by indefinite delay; and, further than that, to make the argument in behalf of Cuba more difficult by cutting down the huge surplus out of which concessions could so easily be made. But, saying nothing about this, the measure has too slap-dash an appearance to look like a carefully considered plan of tax-reduction. Whole classes of taxes are swept clean away without sufficient inquiry as to their productiveness or oppressive nature, and without asking whether other taxes are not more burdensome and might not be removed with greater benefit to all concerned. It looks as if the House were once more playing stupidly into the hands of the Senate—hurrying through ill-considered bills for the sole purpose of showing the country that the Senate must be looked to for the patient framing of proper legislation.

It was only by a hair's breadth that "tariff-tinkering" was kept out of the bill for doing away with war taxes. Congressman Babcock's amendment putting certain iron and steel products on the free list received two Republican votes in committee, and was defeated by only one majority. It is obvious that the same proportion of Republican votes in the whole House would easily pass the Babcock measure. This fact of itself indicates a state of discontent with the existing tariff, even within the party. In it a real statesman would have found his opportunity. Imagine the use which a Gladstone or a Peel would have made of it. He would have insisted, as Gladstone did in his budgets, upon retaining every tax possible that rested on accumulated wealth, and upon abolishing every tax possible that burdened national industry. Better that the workingman pay a tax on his beer and tobacco, asserted the great Chancellor of the Exchequer, than that customs duties should interfere with the manufactures from which he derives his wages. The United States is now very much in the position, industrially, that was occupied by England in the years when Gladstone came forward to strike off the last fetters upon free trade. The immense prosperity that followed, everybody knows. Yet our statesmen, in a similar juncture, would throw away easily borne and automatically collected taxes for the sake of retaining those which are a standing menace to our commerce.

It is a sorry joke which the Manila correspondent of the Associated Press is trying to play on the American people. He gravely informs them that "two parties have been formed" in the Philippines, "the optimists and the pessimists." This may pass with the thoughtless. The wag goes on to say that what the optimists and the pessimists are disputing about is the question whether life and property are safe in the Philippines outside of the towns. As if it could not be determined by a simple experiment! Adjourn the debate to the back country, and see what happens. Any optimist would be willing to risk having his throat cut to prove that he was right; and a knife between the shoulders of a pessimist could not really deepen his melancholy. But our Manila jester pushes the laughing matter too far when he solemnly writes about the importance of having a "large body of resourceful and self-reliant" promoters and exploiters scattered throughout the archipelago, to act as a "reserve force in case of necessity." In the case of necessity imagined, it is obvious that this "reserve force" of isolated Americans would be found reserved in jail, or head-

less in a ditch, and such a result would be certain to swell the ranks of the pessimists.

A large map has been prepared at the War Department under the direction of Gov. Taft, representing graphically the spread of civil government over practically the whole Christianized territory of the Philippines, showing the districts under military rule to be practically confined to the pagan peoples in the extreme southern islands, where Spain never obtained a firm foothold. The map, it is said, also demonstrates the comparatively insignificant area now in revolt, there being no insurrection outside of Samar, Laguna, and Batangas. It is added that "throughout the rest of the archipelago peace and contentment reign under civil rule." In the same newspapers which supply this information is a dispatch from Manila saying that "the policy of reconcentration and the stern measures of closing the ports to commerce have accomplished everything expected of them." The improved conditions represented in the map are due to the policy of Weyler, which we have adopted and enforced so successfully against the Filipinos. "Peace and contentment" are the terms here used to describe the results of reconcentration. Subjugation and silence would seem to be more appropriate.

Evidence as to the use of the water-cure torture by American officers in the Philippines continues to accumulate. A correspondent of the Manila Times, writing from Samar, in August, had the following to say of the methods of Major, now Lieut.-Col., John J. O'Connell, First Infantry: "Major John J. O'Connell, First Infantry, of Gussie expedition fame, who arrived on the scene about this time [after the killing of Lieut. Downes and a soldier] as commanding officer, said that a good *shaking-up* all around would be good; that 'he wanted no traitors about him.' Therefore, all the suspected were given a 'dose' of the 'water-cure,' which proved effectual in bringing to light the guilty. These were locked up in prison." This officer has been in the army since 1865, and served in the war to free Cuba from the horrors of Weylerism. Yet in Samar, if this account be true, he surpasses the Spaniards by applying one of the most exquisite modes of torture known to mediæval or modern times—one which he never would have dreamed of applying to any Confederates in 1865, to any Indians on the plains, or to any Spaniards in Cuba. But the Filipino, being an Asiatic, must not complain, and must proceed to love us at once, even though we violate the laws of war so cruelly. The War Department

or the Philippine Investigating Committee should ask Lieut.-Col. O'Connell under oath as to the correctness of the Manila *Times's* correspondence. A regular army officer newly returned from the Philippines says: "I have never seen the 'water-cure' practised, though I have had fifteen or twenty officers tell me how they did it, and I know they were telling the truth. I have seen the apparatus in the Manila prisons, and know that it was habitually used there."

Mr. A. Burlingame Johnson, who on Thursday gave his views upon the Philippine situation to the extent of three columns in the *Tribune*, insisted that the Filipinos would accept the Americans as their rightful lords and masters if the Americans would only accept them. Mr. Johnson believes in practising what he preaches, and, therefore, is doing his best to make as much money out of the Philippines as he can. He resigned his place as consul at Amoy in order to help develop the Philippine Islands, and, after careful study of the situation, hit upon Negros as the most promising field. Hence his great familiarity with the Philippine situation, and the ease with which he sees peace only, at the very moment that Col. Miner, Sixth Infantry, commanding officer in Negros, reports the situation there as again extremely unsatisfactory, although the island has been completely "pacified" four times to our certain knowledge. The Philippine Syndicate over which Mr. Johnson presides has very broad-gauge plans. It is to construct a railroad in Negros 140 miles long from Escalante to San Juan de Ilog; to develop immediately 10,000 acres of choice sugar land, to be stocked with up-to-date machinery; and to acquire still more extensive tracts of sugar land and some rich mineral property. As a side issue, the Syndicate will erect an electric light plant in Iloilo, for which a municipal contract for 300 lights is about to be secured. Our readers will admit, we are sure, that Mr. Johnson is one of the most consistent men in the United States. We sincerely trust that nobody will be so unkind as to suggest that assurances of peaceful conditions in the Philippines come with dubious taste from one who is seeking to induce capital to go there. Mr. Johnson is evidently too high-minded a civilizer of the beneficent Anglo-Saxon type to be affected by any such considerations as would influence the ordinary man seeking to attract capital to a mercantile enterprise.

The treaty recently signed by Secretary Hay and the Danish Minister is not without its fine political irony. The impartial observer must be struck by the fact that this treaty has been signed by the representative of the first Danish Liberal Ministry of recent times, in direct defiance of the expressed wish of

a large proportion of citizens of the mother country and the colony. But now that the preliminaries of the sale have been a second time consummated, and with every prospect of speedy approval by the Senate, the question of the reluctance of the inhabitants of these islands to change their allegiance becomes of actual interest to us. Even if we regard it as old-fashioned to refuse to buy territory simply because the inhabitants object to being sold, we must feel some interest in the cause of this dissatisfaction. With the Danes at home the feeling is almost wholly sentimental—the natural disinclination to surrender any part of little Denmark. On the islands also this feeling is strong, but it is combined with more practical objections. The strongest of these is the fear of the mixed population that their present democratic position of equality with the whites will suffer a change to the aristocratic exclusiveness of this republic. In Copenhagen, colored people are received at the best hotels, and it is possible to share a box at the Royal Theatre with a member of the "inferior race." The main element in favor of annexation is the influential class of plantation-owners, many of them already American citizens, who hope to gain a better market for their sugar. The whole situation is similar to that in Hawaii, a few years ago, with the substitution of a bargain-counter sale for a comic-opera revolution.

Senator Bacon's adroit amendment, by which the new executive department is to be entitled the Department of Commerce and Labor, probably had something to do with the easy adoption of the bill by the Senate. As it now goes to the House, it has not been much disfigured. With one or two unimportant exceptions, the new Secretary will control all of the bureaus allotted to him by the measure as introduced. The proposed amendment by which the Interstate Commerce Commission would have been included, was withdrawn, because its mover "has been convinced that such a transfer would destroy the functions of the Commission." Just why such a result should be anticipated is not clear, but unwillingness to incorporate the Interstate Commerce Commission with the new department may be easily accounted for on the ground that such a transfer would undoubtedly enlarge the powers of the new Secretary to an excessive degree. Some exception to the title of the department will probably be taken by objectors. Inherently there is no more reason for a Department of Commerce and Labor than for one of commerce and manufactures. The change of title will, however, be a final reply to Mr. Gompers's prospective demand for a "Secretary of Labor," and is probably as good a compromise as could have been arranged.

Unluckily for the happy-family theory of public office as a "divide," there is a very particular and supersensitive person in the White House who will not tolerate it in the Federal service. The country saw, some weeks ago, in the President's summary removal of the Governor of Oklahoma for allowing a corporation to "place" \$10,000 worth of stock with some "friends to whom," said the innocent Gov. Jenkins, "I owed some political obligations"—the country saw with surprise that altogether too nice standards would be insisted on by Mr. Roosevelt. Does he think that he can suspend the operations of the laws of commerce (political), or prevent bosses and candidates from selling their wares in the dearest market? We hear just now of his having demanded the resignation of two Republican office-holders in a Southern State. One was paying the other \$500 a year out of his salary. Neither had the slightest idea of anything wrong in the transaction. We understand that the office-holder who surrendered the money to the other (in consideration of his standing aside as a candidate for the better-paying berth) is especially indignant that there should be any question of his stainless honor. What higher proof could he give of his absolute disinterestedness in office? He argued that, when the President himself is capable of equal devotion to duty, not to mere money rewards, and will offer to give up \$5,000 of his salary to a rival, it will be time for him to make reflections on the conduct of as pure a patriot as ever delivered delegates to Hanna. But the "very positive young man" in the White House demands the resignation obstinately, in perfectly brutal disregard of the new code of honor among office-brokers and office-holders.

The action of the United Mine Workers at Indianapolis in ordering an assessment for a strike fund producing \$23,228 a month, has an unfortunate air. It was thought to be the determination of President Mitchell to bring the miners' grievances before the Arbitration Committee of the Civic Federation. It would now seem, however, that he intends to fall back upon the strike. One passage in the resolutions of the convention is of peculiar significance. Strikes in the past have often been confined to the bituminous or to the anthracite fields, and they have frequently been defeated by the substitution of one kind of coal for the other by consumers. It is probably with this fact in mind that the mine workers say that, "should it develop that coal is being shipped from the bituminous districts into those markets which properly belong to the anthracite product, or should it develop that the Eastern railroads which now consume anthracite are being supplied with coal mined by members of our organization in the bitumi-

nous fields, the National Executive Board shall have full power to order a sectional or national suspension of work, or take such action as they may deem necessary to make successful the movement of the anthracite workers." This is ominous enough, since the disturbed condition of several important mining sections during the past few months and the strong demand for coal furnish the conditions that usually produce a conflict. It is discouraging that so little heed should be paid to the example of arbitration by the Illinois miners, and so little disposition shown to accept the good offices of the Arbitration Committee of the Civic Federation.

The report of the State Board of Tax Commissioners on the special franchise tax which was passed by the Legislature during Gov. Roosevelt's Administration, informs us that in the rural counties, where taxpaying has become a patriotic practice, payment has been made upon these assessments, almost without exception, without quibble or protest, and that it is estimated that, outside of New York city, taxes have been paid upon fully 80 per cent. of the special franchise valuations made in 1900. The sum of \$1,021,000 was thus paid into the local treasuries in that year. There were, however, 278 writs of certiorari served on the Board by tax fighters in the cities; that is, appeals to the courts to review and reverse or modify the valuations of the Board. The tone of the report is encouraging, and leads to the belief that the obstacles heaped up by corporation lawyers against the franchise tax will be swept away, and the litigation soon be brought to an end. The operation of the law of 1901, eliminating street and highway crossings from special franchise assessment, has been to reduce the valuations about \$10,000,000. Neither the effect nor the reason for that law was understood at the time when it was passed. It was slipped through without notice. The reason for it is now very plain. It reduced the amount of taxes to be paid by the franchise holders about \$200,000.

No very good reason is apparent for the action of the State Senate on Thursday in recommitting the Cocks Automobile Bill. The bill as originally reported provided that no automobile should be driven on a public highway at a speed greater than twenty miles an hour, under penalty of fine or imprisonment. That there is pressing need of some restriction upon reckless driving is proved by numerous complaints from many portions of the State. In certain sections, said Senator White, the residents of little townships are fairly excluded from roads recently constructed at great expense. Such a condition clearly calls for legislative relief, and the Cocks bill

certainly imposed no unduly severe penalty. It is the alternative of imprisonment which arouses the automobile interests against it. Of their suggestion that reckless driving be made a misdemeanor only upon the third offence, and that the first and second offences be punishable only by a fine, it may be said, first, that the proposed fines of \$25 and \$50 are not a sufficient deterrent to the wealthy class of chauffeurs; next, that, in view of the difficulty of detecting violations of the speed law and of catching the offender, to relegate imprisonment to the third infraction of the law is practically to remove it from the law entirely. Judges, in any case, would hardly apply the penalty of imprisonment recklessly, any more than they do in other instances; for example, the anti-spitting ordinance. But the courts should be free to deal with cases of gross carelessness in the most exemplary fashion, and without waiting till the gross carelessness has been thrice committed. The law, with the amendments proposed by the President of the Automobile Club, would be no law at all, but a kind of low-license measure for the dangerous misuse of the public highways.

That, even under the worst kind of Quay misrule, civic pride and the desire for municipal betterment cannot be crushed to earth, has recently been demonstrated in Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. The seat of a most corrupt Legislature and the scene of many an unblushing "steal" from the State, it would have surprised no one had the city simply settled down to a condition of hopeless indifference to its own needs. Such has not been the case, however, for last May some sixty public-spirited citizens raised a fund of \$5,075, to employ three experts to study municipal conditions and to suggest plans for the sanitary and aesthetic regeneration of the town. This was done under the supervision of an executive committee of seven, together with the Mayor, the city engineer, and one member from each of the local legislative bodies. The first result is the publication of a report of 120 pages, setting forth in detail how the city's park system may be properly developed, how the water supply and sewage system may be modernized, at a cost of but \$661,000, and how the highways and streets may be improved. As the plans for the park system call for an expenditure of only \$300,000, this and the water supply and sewage changes can be undertaken at once, while a good start can be made in the direction of bettering highways, as the city may increase its indebtedness by nearly \$1,100,000. The action of these public-spirited citizens of Harrisburg is another extremely encouraging example of the widespread awakening to the needs and responsibilities of our American cities. It may even be possible that,

with such an example in their own commonwealth before them, Philadelphians will realize the low estate to which they are fallen.

That drift of population to the cities which is so strongly marked in the more densely peopled countries may be observed also in Canada. In 1891 the great province of Ontario had a total population of 2,114,000, of whom 1,295,000 were rural and 819,000 urban. The corresponding census figures for the year just past show a total population of 2,182,900. Of these, 1,247,000 live in the country, and 935,700 in the towns and cities. That is, the country has lost in the decade about 48,000 inhabitants, while the towns have gained 116,700. These figures are especially striking because Ontario is still under-populated rather than over-populated, and because the provincial and the national Governments make systematic efforts to attract immigrants to the farms. In the great wheat-growing province, Manitoba, these efforts have been successful. In ten years past the increase in the fields has been 73,000, in the towns only 29,000. But the fact that the drift to the towns is so strongly marked in the largest Canadian province seems to show that this movement rests upon social rather than economic motives. For in Ontario there is not the excuse of a depleted soil or of hard conditions of tillage. It is probably, as in other countries, quite as much discontent with the social conditions in the farming districts as the hope of bettered fortunes that drives thousands to exchange the comparative certainty and comfort of the farmer's life for the great hazards of the town.

Prince Henry is coming, but the Reichstag goes on with its plans to pay us off in our own tariff coin. Its tariff committee accepted on Friday the clause of the new bill providing that, in the absence of treaty stipulations, the same rates of duty shall be applied to foreign goods as are enforced, in the country of their origin, against "similar German goods." Do our Western farmers know what this means? It means Dingley rates clapped upon American wheat and bacon and pork seeking a market in Germany. The "fake" agricultural duties put into our law to fool the simple-minded farmer will, in other words, become a stern reality in German hands. On our wheat we should have to face a tariff tax of 25 cents a bushel; bacon and hams would have to pay 5 cents per pound, salt pork 25 per cent. ad valorem, and so on. Meanwhile the German reciprocity treaty sleeps the sleep of the forgotten in the Senate, and, with a tariff war plainly in sight, we are giving ourselves up to the coming fêtes intended to show our warm friendship for Germany. This is a fatal misreading of the signs of the times.

SCHURMAN VS. TAFT.

The people of the United States are beginning to ask themselves in a serious way why they are in the Philippine Islands, and whether they are to remain there for ever; and, if so, what relations they are to hold with the people thereof. The smoke of battle has blown away, the glamour of being a world Power has ceased to charm, the realities of death and disease are sickening the hearts and stirring the consciences of many. To all such, President Schurman's monograph of 109 pages, just published by Scribners, will come as a light in a dark place. To the questions why we are in the Philippines, what we are to do with them, and when we ought to do it, he gives unequivocal, straightforward answers. Unless we are hypocrites, unless we have backslidden from republican principles, unless we are oppressors of our fellow-men without cause and against reason, we must either take them into our political system, or we must give them their independence. The former we can never do.

"No political party," he says, "will ever propose so insane a programme; no statesman will ever venture to advocate a policy so repugnant to American sentiment. The case needs no arguing. The objections to the plan are insuperable; the reasons against it invincible; the hostility to it ingrained and ineradicable."

What is the alternative? Either to hold them as subject provinces, or give them liberty and independence, for the one cannot subsist without the other. If this is not what we are in the Philippines for, if we are there for commercial gain, or to make our power felt in Asia, or for any other selfish purpose, then are we destined to vast and bitter disappointment, and eventually to poignant remorse. One more paragraph out of many of equal plainness that we might quote, is this:

"No prospect of profit, however assured, no wealth or advantage, however colossal, could ever atone for the precious American life-blood swallowed up by the hungry soil of Luzon and the Visayas. For such a sacrifice there is only one justification: it is the discharge of duty, service in a righteous cause. If our presence in the Philippines be not justified in its purpose and intent, then our soldiers' blood is on our hands; ay, and all the blood, in that case innocent, of the Filipinos we have fought, the misery we have caused their families, and the devastation we have wrought in their homes."

Whether we are there in the discharge of duty and in the service of a righteous cause depends upon our course in the immediate future. Mr. Schurman thinks that the time has now come for Congress to order the election of a representative assembly in the pacified provinces—that is, in all the provinces except Cebu, Bohol, Samar, Batangas, and Mindoro; that the delegates so chosen should be allowed to declare whether they wish independence or not, and, if so, at what date they think it should

be conferred, "and then," he says, "we shall have before us all the conditions necessary for the final solution of the Philippine problem." Whether or not this plan will be entirely satisfactory to those among us who have opposed occupation of the islands, we feel sure that they will place no obstacles in the way of carrying it into execution.

Mr. Schurman gives his reasons for thinking that the time has now come for taking this step. He says that when he was in the islands himself as chairman of the first Philippine Commission, looking at the heterogeneousness of the populations, races, and languages, and their antipathies to each other, he had thought that a whole generation would be needed to solidify them as a nation and compose their antagonism. He finds now from the testimony of Gen. Chaffee that they have been forced into a union among themselves by the very war waged against them. Gen. Chaffee has been quoted as saying that the natives of the islands are all traitors to American sovereignty, and have their hearts set on independence.

"When I wrote in 1899," says Mr. Schurman, "that no one can foresee when the diverse peoples of the Philippine Islands may be moulded together into a nationality capable of exercising all the functions of independent self-government, though I hoped for the dawning of the day within one generation (as I there intimated), I did not expect as early as 1902 to learn from the commanding general that, under the hammer of war and the heat of strife, the welding of these diverse peoples into a common nationality had been consummated."

Another reason for the faith that is in him is the continued testimony from the civil Government at Manila that the islands, with the exceptions noted, are now pacified.

Mr. Schurman qualifies his opinion as to the time when American control over local administration should be supplanted, by saying that it should not be done until Gov. Taft, or whoever is in charge of the civil government there, approves of it. Turning to Mr. Taft's testimony before the Senate Committee on the Philippines on Saturday, we find that he holds the same opinion now that Mr. Schurman held in 1899. Replying to a question of Senator Rawlins concerning the aims of the Federal party in the Philippines, who are our friends if we have any there, and whose platform contains a declaration that "the Philippine Islands should form an integral part of the United States of America, to be organized as a Territory with all the rights and privileges which the Constitution of the United States concedes to other Territories, including that of becoming in time a State of the Union," he took a very discouraging, almost contemptuous, view of that scheme. According to the newspaper report, "he held the opinion that the question of Statehood, like the question of independence, is so far in the future that he did not regard it as of present importance." So we have an is-

sue between the presidents of the first Philippine Commission and of the second one as to the line of policy to be adopted upon an agreed state of facts. Mr. Taft tells us that the islands are so far "pacified" that we can safely withdraw all but 15,000 soldiers. If that is the case, says Mr. Schurman, now is the time to put representative government in motion, with a view to the future independence of the Filipinos. Not at all, says Mr. Taft; all such questions are so far in the future as not to call for present consideration.

This is a sharp difference of opinion, on the part of the highest authorities, in reference to the weightiest question now before the country. More people of the thinking, reflecting, influential classes have been reconciled to our occupation of the Philippines by the arguments of Mr. Schurman's report and by his reputation and authority than by any other means—more even than by the action of President McKinley himself. We shall see now whether they will continue to follow their leader.

IMPERIALISM AD ABSURDUM.

The *émeute* in the Senate, in the course of the Philippine debate on January 28, shows how Imperialism has added to our dignity. Who could imagine Senator Lodge, as a citizen of a mere republic, advancing with clenched fists upon the venerable Senator Teller, while his face "blazed with anger" and his "lips were white with rage"? It is only the proud consciousness of world-empire that inspires such a magnanimous bearing. One remembers the prophecies of the great increment of power and glory which was to come to this nation from the annexation of the Philippines, and it is fine to see how the simple mention of the name of the archipelago, the mere discussion of a bill for a Philippine tariff, impels Senatorial courtesy to preen its wings for a loftier flight. Lodge and the other squabblers are nobly fulfilling their own predictions—namely, that the fact of having to legislate for the isles of the sea would give to Congress a new soberness in debate and a prouder sense of the honor of the American name.

Other such left-handed dignities and strength is Imperialism giving us in the actual working. What could be more absurd than the demand that a supposed military exigency in a miserable little island 7,000 miles away should silence the speech of freemen all over this broad continent? Yet that is the kind of affected terror which has been held up before us for three years past, and which is seen again in Gen. Wheaton's anger in Manila at what President Schurman said in Boston. We say nothing now of the military ethics or the legal principles involved. What strikes us most is the sheer absurdity, the downright pre-

posterousness, of the position. We are asked to surrender one of our greatest privileges and most boasted glories--why? Because we have acquired so much new power and glory that we cannot be allowed to enjoy what we had before!

The absurdest comparisons, as of a philosopher like Kant afraid of his valet, or a King not daring to speak above a whisper lest the cook should hear, could not do justice to the situation to which Imperialism would degrade us. A Senator cannot rise in his place and say what he honestly thinks is for the best interest of the United States, because a boloman in the wilds of Samar might not understand. A man of prominence and authority like President Schurman must be muzzled, lest a Visayan guerrilla leader be encouraged to fight on. What a contemptible plight is this to which Imperialism would bring us! We should have to change the proud saying about the right of a man in the land of the free, whether girt by friend or foe, to speak the thing he will, and modify it so as to read, "provided he first get permission of the military authorities half way round the globe." A President about to send in a message to Congress, a Congress about to enter on a discussion of public measures, newspapers about to comment on the news of the day, must all, according to this new way of padlocking free speech, first ask Gen. Chaffee if it will do. Thus would the Imperialistic tail wag the dog.

Such humiliating bonds are not laid upon free citizens by American Imperialism alone. We see the same principle at work in England. Chamberlain has commanded silence for much the same reasons that have led our military censors to cry "Hush!" More than that, in a recent speech about the possibilities of peace, he took the ground that the Government could not make a peace which is earnestly desired by the people of England, and might be very advantageous to them, unless the distant colonies were satisfied. "A new factor," he affirmed, had entered into English politics. "In future you will have to take account of the opinion of your colonies." If they object to talk about negotiations for peace, why, the negotiations must cease. It was one of the frankest acknowledgments ever made of the way in which an empire may be crippled by its own greatness. It adds island to island, and protectorate to protectorate, only to find that it has but made itself more vulnerable to attack and less able to act on its own initiative. Poison comes from the extremities to dull the brain and paralyze the will.

That this absurd fettering by an Imperialistic policy will long be submitted to by Americans it would be ridiculous to imagine. The Senate is showing us how impossible it is to secure bated

breath and whispered humbleness in this country at the word of command from a distant isle of the sea. All these great questions will have to be argued out after the wont of freedom. The very turbulence of debate is one of those "manners of liberty," in Lemaitre's phrase, which it is idle to expect Americans to abandon. The reaction is already in full tide. We are going to be allowed to say what we think, and urge the policy we believe best, without waiting to get permission from an officer of infantry in Mindanao, or inquiring too curiously what will be the effect of our words when translated into Tagalog. The Spanish war was said, like the Mexican, to have made us "more respected abroad." In the process we must not fall into less self-respect at home, as we certainly should if we were to ask humble pardon every time that a speech of a college president or a minority report of a Senate committee failed to meet the notions of a soldier in the Philippines. Let our prestige abroad be what it may, it must not be permitted to impair our liberty at home. Lowell's warning of fifty years ago is still in point, in the face of our tawdry Imperialism, tripping over its own bedraggled purple: "We are anxious to be acknowledged as one of the great Powers of Christendom, forgetful that all the fleets and armies in the world are weak in comparison with one sentence in the Declaration of Independence."

PERPETUAL EDUCATIONAL TRUSTS

There is no more considerate provision of the deed of trust of the Carnegie Institution than that by which the founder has empowered his trustees "to modify the conditions and regulations under which the funds may be dispensed, so as to secure that these shall always be applied in the manner best adapted to the changed conditions of the time." This means that the trustees will never find themselves in the ungracious attitude of blinking the very terms of their trusteeship, and discrediting the judgment of the founder from whom they derive their authority. It means, too, that a great philanthropist has had the discretion, and, one may say, the sense of humor, to see that the needs of to-morrow are not those of to-day, and that wisdom does not die with the makers of philanthropic bequests.

It is strange that so simple and sensible an attitude should be unique among great benefactors, and that the teaching of the past in this matter should have been so heroically ignored. Everybody knows that, if every mass solemnly endowed in *perpetuo* for the repose of a soul were sung, the whole Continent of Europe would be vocal in the Gregorian mode; that if the bread and ale provided by pious founders were actually dispensed at the wickets of dismantled ab-

beys, whole countrysides might dismiss their overseers of the poor. Even when time does not wholly efface such donations, it often leaves them but ridiculous; or reasonable only because their original purpose has been disowned. And yet people confidently seek to perpetuate their personal preferences, or even their simple whims, and corporations still receive bequests the conditions of which, even upon acceptance, they have every intention of evading. The question of casuistry here involved is one of peculiar interest, because the delinquents, potential or actual, belong to the most highly esteemed order of society. What shall one think when the presidents and trustees of institutions of learning or charity play fast and loose with the desires of their benefactors, and, for that matter, with the laws of the land?

Of course, it may be said that common sense imposes a statute of limitations in these matters. Frequently the change in the administration of a trust is so gradual that it would be impossible to determine just when contravention of the founder's purpose began. Thus, one can hardly hold it against the incumbents of several chairs of metaphysics of colonial date that they do not annually denounce *ex cathedra* the errors of Roman Catholic, Arminian, or Baptist theology, as the case may be. And yet such conditions have been the occasion of grave moral scruple, even in recent times. In all cases of this sort it may be assumed (if there was originally nothing eccentric in the terms of the foundation) that the testator, could he be summoned to council, would assent to any reasonable modification of his bequest which changed times might require.

But the matter frequently presents itself in the far less pleasing aspect of early and premeditated evasion by the immediate beneficiaries of the gift. The ingenuity of administrators is constantly at work in arranging to transfer funds given for specific purposes to the general uses of the institution. A certain Eastern college has a chair of American history, literature, and eloquence, founded some ten years ago, the incumbent of which gives *pro-forma* instruction in American history for a few weeks a year, while he illustrates American literature only in his published writing about European travel and art, and American eloquence chiefly in his lectures on the art of the Middle Ages and of the Renaissance. Similarly, the library of a great university has an unduly large fund for, we will say, Scandinavian literature. How many departments fly the Hyperborean flag, for library purposes, it would be unwise to specify, but it is safe to say that only the newest and most ingenuous professors of French, German, Italian, Spanish, or English fail to prove that their desiderata are indispensable to a Scandina-

vian library. The moral question here involved is a complex one, for very generally the beneficiary institutions have had no voice in the framing of the bequest. They have had usually simply the option of accepting the bequest under its conditions or foregoing it entirely. Practically, the moral sense of a corporation, even of a university, is very weak before so crucial a test.

If to be caught in such a moral dilemma is unfortunate, the resultant harm from these apparent perversions of trusts is more apparent than real. It must fairly be assumed that a testator intends primarily to aid the institution in which he creates a foundation. It certainly must be taken for granted that he would not insist upon literal fulfillment of the terms of his will, to the detriment of its beneficiary. But the weighing of the subtle question of relative good, with its infinite possibilities of casuistry, should not, it seems to us, be thrown wholly upon the tender consciences of presidents and trustees. When a specific trust has plainly outlived its usefulness, or, again, if its terms are originally detrimental, it should be possible to obtain from the law-makers an order converting a specific into a general trust, or, when feasible, authorizing a new disposition of the fund which shall be germane to the intention of the founder. So much deference, it seems to us, trustees owe to those from whom they derive their powers. We need hardly add that if donors generally had, like Mr. Carnegie, held the view that if a man is competent to frame a trust wisely, his representatives in future times will be wise enough to change it judiciously, a very pretty question in casuistry, and an occasional stumbling-block in morals, would never have arisen. In this matter Mr. Carnegie has set most gracefully an example which is worthy of general imitation.

JOHN RICHARD GREEN.

In these days the historian inclines to disdain the general reader, but historian and general reader alike may turn for amusement and profit to the Letters of J. R. Green. The one can hardly pass by a correspondence in which Mr. Bryce is affectionately nicknamed the "Holy Roman," and Freeman is told that his "strenuous" prose is "neither prose nor poetry, but like some one holloaing." The other will find that the fun is not confined to mere historical allusion. After collapsing physically in East London, Green is ordered to a "Cockney Patmos" at Margate, whence he writes: "I only came yesterday, and so have no bulletin of health to forward, save that I am taking more kindly to cod-liver oil. Why cods—so exquisite in all else—should concentrate nastiness in their liver, Science may explain." But there is more in these letters than good-humored chaff. They keep touching upon matters of the utmost moment to the historian and of the liveliest interest to every one. They are the outpourings of a man who loved

history so intensely because he entered with such dramatic feeling into all the situations of life.

Mr. Leslie Stephen, the editor of the Letters, likens the success of Green's 'Short History' to that which Macaulay's 'History' had met with twenty-five years before. He recalls, however, Macaulay's two advantages in being already famous, and in writing upon a scale which admitted of pictorial treatment; "whereas Green had the difficult problem of combining the greatest possible condensation with undiminished animation of narrative." Regarding the immediate popularity of the book in both hemispheres there can be no doubt. It only remains to ask whether or not the success was deserved. Apart from the damnable articles in *Fraser's Magazine*, with their long list of inaccuracies, a good many historians feel about the 'Short History' as art critics feel about "the picture of the year," which may be good enough for the Tate Gallery, but is of itself condemned because the multitude like it. What the artists have to say on their own behalf need not concern us. In Green's case the question is important, inasmuch as his attitude towards historical study and composition was extremely pronounced. Although in strict logic the worth or worthlessness of his general views need not be imperilled upon the success or failure of the works wherein he illustrates them, the two things are, as a matter of fact, very likely to be connected.

If it came to an issue of compurgation, Green could collect a great weight of testimony. The writer in *Fraser's Magazine* (September and December, 1875), maintained that the large sale of the 'Short History' was due to the puffing it got from the Free-*manites*. This allegation was far from being true, as the event has shown, and it rested upon a false foundation. Green was comparatively weak in verbal memory, and the misfortune of ill-health compelled him to do his writing at places where he was beyond the reach of books. Thus, while he took the utmost pains in the revision of his proofs, mistakes of names and dates were bound sometimes to slip in. The hostile reviewer inferred from these that he was superficial, and merely worked up in picturesque form the results of others. On the contrary, Green's learning was wide and solid. Stubbs has said of him:

"All his work was real and original work; few people besides those who knew him well would see, under the charming ease and vivacity of his style, the deep research and sustained industry of the laborious student. But it was so; there was no department of our national records that he had not studied, and I think I may say mastered. Hence, I think, the unity of his dramatic scenes, and the cogency of his historical arguments. Like other people, he made mistakes sometimes; but scarcely ever does the correction of his mistakes affect either the essence of the picture or the force of the argument."

We shall not carry the discussion of Green's accuracy or inaccuracy any further, because for present purposes it is not the essential point. He knew the sources of English history at first hand, and worked with incredible energy to gain the information which his task demanded. He was not in any sense a dilettante. His letters prove this past all doubt, and the story of his methods adds testimony to the letters. Concerning the 'Making of England,' Mr.

Stephen says: "This extraordinary achievement had tried his strength to the utmost." And well it might have done. Long before the work was finished, Sir Andrew Clark had said that Green could not live for six weeks. Yet he kept alive by dint of will power, and spared no exertion to make his book perfect. "For many weeks, he could not sit up or take solid food. He was unable to hold a pen, or even to make pencil corrections on a proof. At intervals he could dictate for a short time or go through references with his wife's help. He dictated, as he talked, very rapidly, and with perfect clearness and precision." In spite of this facility in composition, much of the book was wholly rewritten five times, and for parts of it there were eight or ten different proofs. "When the last proof had been corrected, a discovery was made about a certain Aethelwald. Wearied as he was, Green spent two more days in work rather than leave the incorrect statement."

With Green a *tour de force* like this did not represent the feverish excitement of a dying man so much as the unflinching enthusiasm of the born historian. Unlike 'Vathek,' for instance, the 'Making of England' was less a spasmodic effort than the fruit of deliberate and steady purpose. Green was always full of ideas, full of sympathy, full of eagerness. He was a brilliant talker, a ready and effective speaker. Whomsoever he met, his intense vitality and directness left their effect upon the hearer. Mr. Bryce heard him preach for the first time when he was at St. Philip's, Stepney. "I shall never forget the impression made on me by the impassioned, fiery little figure in the pulpit, with its thin face and bright black eyes." His paper on Dunstan, delivered in 1862 before the Somersetshire Archaeological Society, carried Freeman by storm. After a visit to Hampden in 1895, Sir M. E. Grant Duff wrote in his diary: "Green, whom the more I see of him, the more I think likely to be, if he lives, the greatest English historian who has yet been, with the exception of Gibbon." Mrs. Humphry Ward has written: "There was in him a perpetual eagerness, an inexhaustible power of knowledge, that were ever putting idler or emptier minds to shame."

We have collected these passages about Green by those who knew him, partly because they are sincere tributes to the memory of a remarkable man, and partly because they describe in terser form the qualities which are expressed with living reality throughout the whole course of his letters. Here undoubtedly was one whom nature destined to be an historian as she destined another to be a painter, and a third to be a musician. He had the power, so rarely given to historical writers, of realizing the past by a true poetic sense. Sir M. E. Grant Duff says he never had it so much brought home "that the real historian is an animal different from and of a superior order to ordinary human beings who possess the power of narration," as when he saw the effect produced on Green by the view from Whiteleaf Cross. If you call an historian imaginative, some people will think you mean that he draws on his imagination for his facts. Green had power, and his power was due to the fervor of his imagination, working, as it did, harmoniously with his warmth of heart and his interest in human life.

Can the historian who lacks these gifts

ever be more than a collector of facts and a master of logic? The scientific age had come even in Green's time. It is just twenty-five years since he wrote to Macmillan that he must decline to be editor of the proposed *English Historical Review*:

"I shall be looked upon by the bulk of historic scholars as a person imposed on the review by the unhappy necessity of securing a publisher and a popular circulation, and as the representative not of the scientific, but of the non-scientific, elements in it. The justice of this is not to the purpose here; but I must own that, for my own part, I feel my historic tendencies to be sufficiently at variance with the general tendency of historic research just now to give such sentiments a certain color of truth."

Perhaps the strongest praise which Green has received from Stubbs is contained in the following words: "In him the desire of stating and pointing the truth of history was as strong as the wish to make both his pictures and his arguments strong and forcible. He never treated an opposing view with intolerance and contumely; his handling of controversial matter was exemplary." So it was when he faced the difference between his conception of history and Mr. Gardiner's. He did not think the "pragmatic" historians unjust for attacking his view. "It is very natural that, working as they do to bring out the actual political facts and clear away loose talk, they should look jealously at what is, in effect, a protest against their whole conception of history, and what must look to many of them like an attempt to bring the loose talk back again." Nevertheless, his conviction was plain. He felt that, however imperfect, his work was "on the old traditional lines of English historians." He was a liberal to the tips of his fingers, he accepted the scientific method, and science swept him away from the church whose ministry he had entered; but in a scientific age he felt himself to be a *vox clamantis*, whose business it was to protest against mere pragmatism. Every word he writes goes to the same point—"to a protest, that is, against the tendency to a merely external political view of human affairs, and to a belief that political history, to be intelligible, must be based on social history in its largest sense."

Among historians the scientific method, which began long ago as a heresy, tends in the days of its triumph to harden into a superstition. Above all things, a good historian is never narrow. Green's principles run counter to the present tendency on this continent, as they clashed with the principles of his leading contemporaries in England. Yet there is much in his letters that historians should read and weigh. While every one will be impressed by the spectacle which they afford of high-minded enthusiasm, of devotion to friends, of intellectual honesty, and of an intrepidity almost surpassing belief, the teacher and writer of history may well ponder these words: "We English folk live in free human air, and it is impossible to us to sink into mere paper-chasers." And so I don't doubt that the English ideal of history will in the long run be what Gibbon made it in his day, the first in the world; because it can alone combine the love of accuracy and external facts with the sense that government and outer facts are but the outcome of individual men, and men what body, mind, and spirit make them."

CONDITIONS IN PORTO RICO.

SAN JUAN, January, 1902.

One of the most prominent members of President Roosevelt's Cabinet lately said the Government at Washington was so well satisfied with the conditions in Porto Rico that it gave no more thought to that island than it gave to the State of New Jersey. While this attitude of the authorities at Washington is sufficiently complimentary to the insular Government, there still remain unsettled a few questions of moment relating to Porto Rico, which it would be well if the Washington officials did not so readily dismiss from their minds.

While in a political sense the island and its affairs, the system of insular government, including the system of taxation, of revenues, and of public schools, have been set going to the entire satisfaction of the President and his advisers, and have ceased to be a source of doubt and anxiety, in a commercial sense the island and its possibilities are just on the verge of discovery by the people of the United States. The newspapers in "the States," the title by which the islanders distinguish the home country from its new possessions, have just recorded certain experiments made in Connecticut in the direction of producing a cigar-wrapper like the Sumatra wrapper by growing the leaf under shade. More than two months ago a representative of the Tobacco Trust went to Porto Rico prepared to grow a tobacco crop under the shelter of canvas or wooden slats. He selected a field in the Cayey district, and by this time his crop should be well under way. Unless high winds, which are more frequent in Porto Rico than in Connecticut, should destroy the shelter, there can be little doubt of the success of this early and important experiment in thinning the Porto Rican leaf and growing for the United States market what is considered by Americans a more attractive wrapper than this leaf in its natural state produces. The removal, last summer, of the United States tariff on Porto Rican tobacco caused so sudden and enormous a growth of the market in the States for Porto Rican cigars that some manufacturers were unable to supply the demand for their product.

The coffee industry is in a less flourishing state. The hurricane of two years ago did great damage to the coffee plantations, and from it they have not recovered. Moreover, the Spanish duty on Porto Rican coffee has had the effect of closing this important transatlantic market, and the people of the United States are not yet aware of the great superiority of the island coffee in richness of body and flavor over the thinner Brazilian coffees, which are so largely consumed in the States, where the latter coffees are bought by consumers for the Java and Mocha product; the Mocha being readily supplied by sorting the round berries from the flat ones growing in the same pod. The influences named, together with the desire of Spanish owners to withdraw from the island since it has come under American rule, have resulted in placing coffee plantations in the market at much less than their former value.

The future prospects of the sugar industry are indicated by the erection by the American Sugar Trust of what is believed to be the most complete plant in the world for crushing the cane. In the extraordinary

depth and richness of the soil, and in the climate, to which frost is unknown, and which permits one crop to succeed another as fast as the first matures, is found the certainty of a great agricultural development in the future, to which the agricultural schools started by Dr. Brumbaugh, the former capable Commissioner of Education, will also in turn contribute. With a population of nearly one million inhabitants, in an island some ninety miles in length and forty in width, but one-fifth of the land is at present cultivated, and thousands of the natives suffer from anæmia, the most common disease of the island, largely because of an unvaried diet of a few fruits obtainable without labor.

As a winter resort for Americans, the development of Porto Rico will probably wait upon the building of roads and the introduction of means to vary the monotony of life. A few miles from Coamo, which is on the military road within an easy drive from Ponce, at Coamo Springs, the Spaniards maintained a resort which is well worth a visit. The hot waters gush from the hillside into the stone baths, whose size, huge stoppers and faucets excite the visitor's curiosity. The grounds have an interesting collection of tropical vegetation, and the rooms, beds, and cuisine are not only safe—which is a high recommendation in a hot climate—they would be unusually attractive in the United States or Europe. The same thing may be said of the French hotel in Ponce. But at San Juan, the capital, a good hotel, clean in all its appointments, is needed.

The most marked progress in Porto Rico has been made in the school work under Dr. Brumbaugh. The new frame schoolhouses met with in all parts of the island, or the old Spanish buildings of stone altered into schoolhouses, all with American flags waving over them, are, of course, more visible evidences of work accomplished than are the results of other governmental work on the part of Gov. Hunt and his subordinates. But even allowing for this, the chief hope for the future of Porto Rico seems to lie in the school work. At Ponce there is a school of some 400 children in which no Spanish is used. Even in the "shack" school on the mountain top the native teacher, clad in her simple but clean gown, her stockingless feet covered with slippers, is day by day teaching the English equivalents of Spanish words. Everywhere American patriotic songs are sung by the children, often in English, and the dedications of new schoolhouses exhibit the hospitality of the local Porto Rican authorities and their enthusiasm in the cause of education as well as the ardor of the children. With what spirit these last sing "The Star-Spangled Banner" and wave their tiny American flags! These occasions were always used by Dr. Brumbaugh to impress upon the large gatherings of adults and children that opportunity for all to learn to work and to develop followed the flag, and everywhere the eager faces showed appreciation of the new doctrine. Perhaps not much can be expected of the ignorant adult population of mixed blood; but the 50,000 cleanly dressed, bright-looking children now cared for by the public-school system, which includes a normal school, are destined to lead the native population of the island from the shiftless shack life which has endured so long.

The chief American officials in Porto Rico are, without exception, men of high character, dignity, and ability, who have the future welfare of the island at heart. The only thing to make an American blush, if some inferior bridge-building under the military government be excepted, had its source at Washington. Popularly, the influence of a prominent United States Senator is credited with responsibility for the extraordinary powers conferred upon the Bank of Porto Rico at San Juan. Congress permits the bank, with a capital of \$900,000 and power to increase it to \$1,200,000, to issue bank-notes at present to the amount of \$2,700,000, and to increase the circulation to \$3,500,000—which latter sum is equal to the entire circulation of money in the island. Of the authority thus misplaced, Treasurer J. H. Hollander, well known by reason of his connection with Johns Hopkins University, and as the author of the revenue law of Porto Rico, said: "The possibility of large issues at any time in the future cannot be regarded as other than a standing menace to the financial security of the island. . . . No sane mind [in the United States] would propose to vest in a private agency power to issue notes to an amount equal to the total circulation of the country, and enjoying no preference over other liabilities of the bank with respect to the security given by a metallic reserve of one-third. Yet this is precisely the relation of the Spanish bank to the island of Porto Rico." The custom-houses and the post-offices in the island will not accept the bank's notes.

It is understood that the Danish islands, when ceded to the United States, will come under the insular government at San Juan. Already the island of Porto Rico is self-supporting. The island politics is absurdly personal from habit. The Federalist still regards the Republican as an enemy not fit to break bread with and unworthy of any recognition. He is, perhaps, as vociferous a herald of a personal cause as the world has ever seen; but, fortunately, his energy evaporates in speech. The swift years will change many, and the rest will die. The Federalist would like a Territorial or State government, with himself and his friends in the offices. The time for Porto Rico to become a Territory will be nearer when the school agencies have sent a hundred thousand pupils back to their communities, there to spread the example of respect for labor, truth, and decent living, for manhood and womanhood.

THE CRISIS IN THE FRENCH THEATRE.

PARIS, January 17, 1902.

It must be a surprise to a foreigner, happening by chance to go through Paris, to see how much space is devoted in our newspapers to theatrical matters. For some little time we have been in a state of excitement over the quarrel which has arisen between the administrator of the Comédie-Française and the actors of this theatre, which is considered the best school of acting in France. The choice of the plays has been left till this year to a chosen committee of actors and actresses, having the rank of *sociétaires* or partners, and constituting what was called the Reading Committee. It was a great honor for an author to have a play read before these severe judges; at

the end of the reading a vote was taken—the play was refused, or admitted, or admitted conditionally upon revision. This has all been changed by a stroke of the pen of the Minister of Instruction and Fine Arts. The Théâtre-Français, receiving an annual subsidy from the state, is under the supervision of this minister. The Reading Committee has been simply abolished. The "Maison de Molière," as it is often called, had to change its form of government; the administrator alone will have the right to accept or to refuse a new play. An absolute government is substituted for a republican régime.

This *coup d'état* has been the occasion of a long debate in our press. The great public really cares for but one thing: it would like to be invited to hear good plays, whether ancient or modern. All the more recent plays have met with little success; they all dilate more or less on the question of divorce, and this subject, which was new a few years ago, before divorce became the subject of a law, is now thoroughly exhausted. It occasionally furnishes comical incidents in our light theatres, but its serious aspects have ceased to be a matter of interest.

Many of the newer comedies have shown a sort of timid imitation of the manner introduced some years ago by a bold and intelligent actor named Antoine in a small theatre which bore his name. It is not easy to translate the word "*rosse*," which has been given to this manner. The *théâtre rosse* has for its object to be absolutely realistic, to do away with all the conventionalities of the stage which have been admitted for centuries. It does not develop an action with the usual exposition and the necessary end of a plot; it means to give to the public mere "slices of life," and life is not made out of three, or four, or five acts—it goes on and leaves us at any time in suspense. It is not difficult to imagine why the first adepts in this new theatrical formula became very enthusiastic about it; it gave them absolute freedom, it made their work very easy, in many senses, as it did away with all complications and all intrigue. A new kind of acting, also, in harmony with it, was introduced. Actors and actresses sprang, so to speak, out of life; they needed no preparation, no long studies such as those of the Conservatoire; all that was asked of them was to be natural, to be faithful exponents of their own individuality. I will not deny that this return to nature had its advantages, that there was too much convention both in the creation and in the interpretation of theatrical works—the Théâtre-Français felt its effects in a certain degree; but, unfortunately, the new playwrights, while they attempted to get as near to life as possible, produced no plays of undoubted importance that could impress themselves on the public.

The famous theatrical critic Francisque Sarcey always protested against the introduction of an exaggerated realism on the stage of the Théâtre-Français. He protested, also, against the exaggeration of what is called the "*mise en scène*"—against the importance given to the material part of the theatrical art, the furniture, costumes, etc. The French Theatre receives a large subsidy from the state for no other object than to revive in each generation the best traditions of the past; it is bound to what is called the "*répertoire*"—a name that in-

cludes the classical plays, the masterpieces of Corneille, Racine, and Molière, to which have been added in our time the finest plays of Alfred de Musset and of Victor Hugo. An expensive "*mise en scène*" is quite unnecessary in such plays. When it becomes too operatic, it is even detrimental to the emotion of the audience. To please the eye and the ear is the privilege of the opera; the Théâtre-Français made its world-wide reputation by caring more exclusively for the pleasures of the mind. But the new realism has forced itself not only into the composition and development of the plays, but also into all the material accompaniments and surroundings of a plot. The Théâtre-Français would never, in old times, have played Sardou's "*Patrie*" as it is given now, at an enormous expense. "*Patrie*" was played, when it came out, at the Porte St.-Martin, but a theatre of the Boulevard can play the same piece a hundred, two hundred times in succession, and, if the piece is a success, the expenses of the "*mise en scène*" are soon repaid. The French Theatre is bound to vary its programme incessantly, and cannot afford to take the same risks as a private theatre.

Madame Sarah Bernhardt is just now playing Sardou's "*Theodora*" at her own theatre, and I am told that she has spent no less than 200,000 francs in the setting of this drama, which is a spectacle for the eyes more than for the mind. The Théâtre-Français cannot venture (or at least ought not to venture) such experiments; it ought to follow, more than it does at present, the sensible advice of Francisque Sarcey. The class of people who go to the Français care little for furniture, for costumes, for absolute exactness in all material details. Sarah Bernhardt made her reputation in the classical tragedies of Racine, which are ruled by the inflexible unities of Aristotle; the scenery did not change about her in every act; there were always the old temple, the naked walls, the cold hangings; she, and she alone, was enough. "*Moi seul, et c'est assez*." Whoever is so fortunate as to have heard her with her golden voice, to have seen her stand and move in the long draperies of *Phèdre* or *Andromaque*, will always remember her, and will care little for all the pomp and Oriental splendor with which she now surrounds herself in "*Theodora*."

It is difficult to prophesy what will be the end of the present crisis of the French Theatre. The actors and actresses who were members of the Reading Committee, just abolished, are partners in a sort of commercial society. They draw every year a certain sum, which might be called a dividend, out of the profits and outside of their salaries. This dividend, which, a few years ago, amounted to 40,000 francs for each of them, dwindled down to 12,000 francs last year. The burning of the Théâtre Français was in great part the cause of this diminution of profits, as many extraordinary expenses had to be met. The reports of last year's expenses and receipts are valuable documents which I need not analyze.

After all has been said (and there has been no end to the discussion on this subject), I willingly return to Voltaire's *moi* in "*Candide*": "How many plays have you in France?" "Five or six thousand." "It is much," says Candide. "And how many good

ones?" "Fifteen or sixteen." "That's a great many," says Martin." Good plays! there is the secret. Good actors will always be found, I venture to say, in France, which seems to have a peculiar genius in this respect, owing to centuries of peculiar culture. It is impossible not to be struck by the fact that in the meanest little theatres or even music-halls of the capital, and even of the large cities of France, you always discover some actor or actress with a special gift for acting. There is a whole populace of "cabotins," of both sexes, always looking for employment, always trying to get an engagement. It would be interesting, and sometimes very painful, to describe the career of so many men and women drawn by an irresistible calling to the hazardous life of the theatre. We know how difficult were the beginnings of some—of Rachel, for instance, the most illustrious of all; but nothing can deter many thousands, I may say, from the attraction of the stage. The demand for actors will always be answered by a supply. The same, alas, cannot be said of the demand for really good plays.

Correspondence.

CUBA AND IRELAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While our statesmen at Washington are debating what to do with Cuba, it will not be inopportune to recall a few well-known facts from the history of another island dependency.

Two centuries or more ago, Ireland, devastated by famine and war, lay at the mercy of England. The little energy that remained in her was turned to cattle-raising, which was as well suited to her by nature as sugar-raising to Cuba. The English landowners took alarm, and, by the 18 Charles II., c. 2, prohibited the importation of Irish cattle into England. This destroyed the rising trade. Ireland then turned to wool; but, by the 10 and 11 Gul. III., c. 10, this attempt was crushed by a still more sweeping prohibition. Smuggling began, and wool was carried to the manufacturers in France. Finally, the Irish turned again to their ancient manufacture of linen; but in vain, for the country had been crushed. Her poverty was irremediable and her despair final. By these measures England destroyed a possible market, stimulated her rivals, strengthened her enemies, blasted the hopes of a nation, and sowed the seeds of hate around the world.

For those who rely on the adequacy of free institutions, it is well to remember, also, that the commercial imperialism of the Whig ascendancy was more grinding upon the colonies of England than the more generous absolutism of the Stuarts.

Yours truly, WILLIAM P. GEST.

MERION, PA., January 30, 1902.

THE BEET-SUGAR CASE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The controversy between Cuban and domestic sugar being now at its height, it is curious to note the actual condition of public opinion throughout the nation. It must be admitted that the preponderance of opinion expressed in the leading journals can hardly be claimed as in favor of

the just demands of domestic sugar-producers. There are several grave and obvious errors in the argument that constitutes the Cuban case, and the most important reasons for the establishment of beet sugar are not understood and are not presented—and perhaps never will be. One error, that of extravagant profits continuously enjoyed by cold-blooded producers of beet sugar, has now become less militant. The popular idea as to these profits and the cost of domestic sugar was an error, and could have been disproved by an examination of books; but it had great weight, and perhaps has now.

The claim is made every day that Cuban sugar will destroy no industry, and it is assumed that domestic sugar-producers in this country have a proposition of fixed and reliable factors, which enable us to say whether or not we can make money as the seasons roll along with a precision that is not possible to the foresight of mortal man. Actually, there is not one single critic of the position taken by domestic sugar-producers who is qualified to criticise their acts, and who would not in the same circumstances take exactly the same position that these producers do.

It is not true that the cost of sugar has admitted of extravagant profits, but, on the contrary, very little money has been recovered by investors in beet sugar in the way of dividends. If any profits have been made, they have been put back into the plant. The prospectus printed in newspapers all over the land, and scattered broadcast by the Sugar Trust, has conveyed an impression quite incorrect, and the result is simply a great mistake. Qualifying conditions, such as droughts, floods, and other misfortunes, have made the actual conglomerate experience of beet sugar widely diverse from the cheerful results indicated. Beet-sugar people have undertaken a task which involves a change in the fundamental conditions of agriculture, and the time and labor required have been underestimated in such degree as to make any prospectus appear absurd when checked up with actual results.

In spite of the phrase "No industry destroyed," the insincere motto of the Trust, a victory for Cuba means an early extinction of all domestic sugar, either in Louisiana or the North. A victory for domestic sugar means the gradual exclusion of foreign sugar till it forms an insignificant fraction of our consumption. The two are antagonistic, and one or the other must prevail. If we are beaten, the nation loses for ever its opportunity to secure in rural districts which cannot get other industrial life the most beneficent and valuable factor that we may ever know for education, improvement of agriculture, some degree of urban civilization, and fixing on the soil the owner who tills his own land. If we could now see clearly what beet sugar may accomplish, there would be no further discussion, and only our imperfect view of the future gives the Cuban argument any standing whatever. We have nothing but good will for the people of Cuba, and are willing that our Government shall make them any allowance necessary for their support; but we are not willing to build up their sugar industry at the cost of our own.

Yours truly, R. M. ALLEN.

AMES, NEBRASKA, January 27, 1902.

OUR NEW BELONGINGS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is interesting to note the variety of terms employed in current newspaper and magazine literature to designate the territory acquired by the United States through the Spanish war. Thus, the phrases "our new possessions," "our island empire," "our new territories," "our dependencies," "our colonies," and the like, are all in every-day use. None of these names is entirely satisfactory. For instance, *colonies* smacks too much of Imperialism, *dependencies* appears out of harmony with republican ideas, and so on through the list. Even the Government term, "our insular possessions," lacks greatly in precision, as we have one insular possession no farther away than across the East River.

In view of this, a specific name is desirable to describe the Philippines and Porto Rico, and such a term seems to have been provided for us by Judge Brown in the Supreme Court decision. The distinction between the different sections of the country he makes to hinge upon the clause "territory appurtenant and belonging to" the United States. Why not, then, assign to the word "appurtenants" of the United States the technical meaning intended?

Yours very truly, JOS. V. COLLINS.

217 DIVISION ST., STEVENS POINT, WIS.,
January 28, 1902.

CANADA AND ALASKA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The present contention of Canada about the Alaskan frontier, which she brought up at the Quebec Conference in 1898, is that she is entitled to many outlets upon tide-water above fifty-four degrees forty minutes north latitude; and the possession of even only one such outlet on the Lynn Canal would serve her purposes admirably well. The United States, on the other hand, as Russia before them, have always maintained that (by Articles iii. and iv. of the Anglo-Muscovite Treaty of 1825), no matter whether the frontier pass over a certain mountain top or through a given gorge, yet it is at all points far enough inland to entirely cut off the British empire from all contact with tide-water above the Portland Canal, which debouches into the ocean at fifty-four degrees forty minutes. And this view of the United States has been supported in the past, and not so long ago either, by both the British and the Canadian Governments.

In the early course of the negotiations between Russia and England in the years 1823 and 1824, Sir Charles Bagot fought strenuously to keep open for Britain an outlet upon tide-water as far up above fifty-four degrees forty minutes as possible. But to all his propositions, including his last one that the frontier should pass from the southern extremity of Prince of Wales Island and up through Clarence Straits, which wash the eastern shore of Prince of Wales Island, the Russians would not agree. And finally England, represented by Stratford Canning, yielded the point and agreed on the Portland Canal as a boundary. As to what sinuosity Count Nesselrode, M. de Poletica, and Stratford Canning meant by the Portland Canal, when they negotiated and concluded the treaty of 1825, may be seen by looking at Vancouver's chart, upon

which is marked clearly "Portland Canal." And the map of the "Northwestern Part of the Dominion of Canada," published by the Surveyor-General at Ottawa, in 1898, agrees with Vancouver and the United States as to where is the "Portland Canal."

In 1872 Sir Edward Thornton, acting on his instructions from the British Foreign Office, which was serving as the intermediary for the Government of Canada, proposed to Secretary Hamilton Fish the advisability of having a survey made of the territory through which the boundary ran, so that the frontier could be located exactly, and Mr. Fish thought well of the idea and said that he would urge Congress to provide funds for such a survey. At that time no mention was made of Canada's present claim, that she is entitled to the upper part of many or all of the fiords or sinuosities that cut into the mainland above fifty-four degrees forty minutes. On the contrary, the Surveyor-General of Canada, J. S. Dennis, in a written communication in 1874 to the Minister of the Interior of the Dominion, gave his opinion that it would be sufficient at that time to determine exactly the points at which the frontier crosses the "Rivers Skoot, Stakeen, Taku, Isilcat, and Chilkah." He added further: "The United States surveys of the coast could be advantageously used to locate the coast line in deciding the mouths of the rivers in question, as points from whence the necessary triangulation surveys should commence in order to determine the ten marine leagues back." In addition, a United States Coast Survey map, certified to "January 16, 1878," by Surveyor-General Dennis, was published in connection with this letter, with the boundary line crossing the Skoot, Stickine, and Taku Rivers, ten leagues back from the coast.

In 1877 the Canadian Government, through the intermediation of the British Foreign Office, formally recognized that the *lisière* of Alaska shut off Canadian territory from access to salt water. The previous year, while taking a prisoner named Peter Martin, who was condemned in the Cassiar District of British Columbia for some act committed in Canadian territory, from the place where he was convicted to the place where he was to be imprisoned, Canadian constables crossed the Stickine River. They encamped with Martin at a point some thirteen miles up the river from its mouth. There Martin attempted unsuccessfully to escape, and made an assault on an officer. Upon his arrival at Victoria, the capital of British Columbia, he was tried and convicted for his attempted escape and attack upon the constable; and the court sentenced him. Our Secretary of State, Hamilton Fish, protested vigorously against this infringement of the territorial sovereignty of the United States in the Territory of Alaska. After an investigation into the facts of the case, the Dominion Government acknowledged the justness of Secretary Fish's protest by "setting Peter Martin at liberty without further delay"; and thus recognized that the Canadian constables who had Martin in their charge when they encamped on the Stickine thirteen miles up from the mouth of the river, were on United States soil, and so that Canada's jurisdiction in that region did not extend to tide-water.

A striking truth of what the best official geographers of the British Government

thought was the true boundary, is "Admiralty Chart No. 787" of the British Admiralty, that gives the northwest coast of America from "Cape Corrientes, Mexico, to Kadiak Island." This was prepared in 1876 by F. J. Evans, R. N., published in 1877, and corrected up to April, 1898, only a few months before the opening of the Quebec Conference. On this chart of the British Admiralty, the frontier of the United States descends the one hundred and forty-first degree of longitude west from Greenwich, and then, advancing on the Continent, but passing around the sinuosities of the coast so as to give a continuous *lisière* of territory cutting off the Dominion of Canada from all contact with any of the fiords or sinuosities that bulge into the continent between Mount Saint Elias and the Portland Canal, the frontier is drawn to the head of the Portland Canal at about fifty-six degrees, and then down that sinuosity, striking Dixon's Entrance at fifty-four degrees forty minutes. *Thus the British Admiralty itself upholds the territorial claims held and maintained by both the Russian and the United States Governments.*

It is one thing to ask the United States to agree, as Mr. Fish was willing to do in 1872, to have a joint survey to examine the country in the interior in order to locate exactly where the frontier runs. But it is quite another thing to ask the United States to submit to arbitration their right to all the sinuosities of the coast in their *entirety* above fifty-four degrees forty minutes, and the unbroken strip of territory round these sinuosities, which Great Britain recognized, from 1825 to 1867, as a part of Russia, and, since then, until recently, as a part of the United States. The more the subject is examined, the more evident does it become that there is nothing in the proposition of Canada and England which the United States should refer to arbitration.

T. W. BALCH.

PHILADELPHIA, January 27, 1902.

[The argument must close here.—ED. NATION.]

UNIFORM MUNICIPAL ACCOUNTING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Our City Comptroller, Hon. James H. Smith, has added Baltimore to the list of cities that have taken up the important subject of uniform municipal accounting. In his report, just published, there is a schedule of the receipts and expenditures of the city arranged according to the scheme suggested by the National Municipal League. This scheme distributes the receipts and expenditures of the municipality under the general heads of ordinary and extraordinary. In the case of receipts, the ordinary embrace income from taxes, licenses, and so on; the extraordinary, income from sales of property, issuing of city bonds, and the like. Ordinary expenditures embrace what are usually termed operating or maintenance expenses. Extraordinary expenditures are made for purchases of property, erection of public buildings, redemption of the public debt, and so on. It is the request of the National Municipal League that all city comptrollers and auditors will, as an appendix to their report, state the receipts and expenses of their respective municipalities according to the scheme suggested by the League, so

that by actual experience and a comparison of results a uniform schedule may be adopted which will commend itself for use in all municipal reports.

In order not to trespass too much upon your space with an elaborate explanation, it is proper to add that all who may be interested in this important branch of municipal government may obtain information in detail from the Secretary of the National Municipal League, Mr. Clinton Rogers Woodruff, North American Building, Philadelphia. JOHN H. BLACKLOCK.

235 EQUITABLE BUILDING, BALTIMORE,
January 27, 1902.

AN EARLY ALLUSION TO OMAR KHAYYAM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: All lovers of Omar Khayyám know that his early fame in the West rested on his ability as an astronomer rather than on those wonderful quatrains which breathe the *Weltschmerz* of our modern age. The burden of the song of the "tent-maker," as FitzGerald has given it to us, has become part and parcel of our literature. It becomes of interest, then, to trace the European knowledge of Omar as far back as possible. FitzGerald's teacher, Prof. E. B. Cowell of Cambridge, supposed that the earliest reference to our poet in the West occurred in the well-known passage in Thomas Hyde's *Historia Religionis Veterum Persarum*, pages 498-500 of the first edition (Oxford, 1700). Here almost certainly is the first Occidental publication of any of his quatrains, the one which FitzGerald rendered,

"O Thou who burn'st in Heart for those who burn."

There is, however, at least one allusion to the poet which antedates the passage in Hyde by more than a century. Here, too, the reference is primarily to the astronomer, but his poetic talent is altogether unnoticed. The ancient calendar of the Persians had fallen behind on account of faulty intercalation, and a reform was necessary, as was to be the case with the Gregorian reckoning in Europe five centuries later. Accordingly, the old friend of Omar, the Sultan Alp Arslan, summoned to his assistance the eight most eminent astronomers of Persia, including the poet himself. Among Al-Khayyám's associates were two whose names are familiar to all students of the Orient, Avicenna, the Arabic Aristotelian philosopher, and the chronologist and historian of India, Al-Biruni. The allusion to the poet to which reference is here made is found in the work of the great Dutch scholar, Joseph Scaliger, *'De Emendatione Temporum'*, page 304 of the Geneva edition of 1629 (first edition, Basel, 1593), and runs as follows in text and translation:

"In illa autem forma vaga anni Iezdegirdici difficile est id assequi, tam propter neglectum in anno Persico quadrantem, quam propter praegressionem aequinoctium; ob eam rem, Imperator Corasan, siue Mesopotamiae, convocatis peritisimis astrologiae viris curam noui anni instituendi delegavit. Imperatoris, qui id edixit et sanxit, nomen est, Abu Arsalan Elselegeuki Elhavvaraz, Muschahi Sultan Corasan. Conuenerunt ad edictum Regium octo praestantissimi viri, Omar Elhajamu, Abu Hali, Hasan filius Haitham, Elbiruni, Abu Elvapha, Elbuzgiani, Ellukari, Iudex iurisdictionis Elphakati, et Aben Sina, quem vulgo Auisenam vocant. Erat annus Christi Dionysianus 1079."

"Now, in that vague form of the year of Yezdegird [the old system of time], it is hard to secure this [an accurate calendar], not alone because the quarterday is neglected in the Persian year, but on account of the progression of the equinoxes as well. Therefore, the Emperor of Chorasán, or Mesopotamia, called the most skilled astrologers together and commissioned them to determine a new year. The name of the emperor who ordained and enacted this is Alp Arslan, the Seljuk al-Havaraz Mushahi, Sultan of Chorasán. According to the imperial mandate, eight most distinguished men convened, Omar Khayyam, Abu 'Ali, Hasan ibn Haitham, al-Biruni, Abu al-Vapha, al-Buzgi, al-Lukari, judge of the district of al-Fakat, and Ibn Sina, whom they commonly call Avicenna. It was the Dionysian year of Christ 1079."

Whence did Scaliger get his information? To this question I can at present give no answer. Very probably his source was some one of the numerous Arabic or Persian astronomers, many of whose works are even yet unprinted. Yet, whatever his authority, Scaliger's words, from what we know of the poet's life from Oriental writers, bear the stamp of credibility. So, as a contribution to Persian and to English literature alike, I have transcribed them from a work but little known to-day as an offering to those who, like myself, find consolation and new courage in the Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám.

LOUIS H. GRAY.

NEWARK, N. J., January 27, 1902.

THE MICROBE FORESHADOWED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Chaucer long ago told us,

"Ther nys no newe gyse that it nas old";

and perhaps, in view of recent researches into the ætiology of diseases, the theory propounded by Samuel Foote in his comedy "The Devil on Two Sticks" (1768) may have interest. The President of the College of Physicians is delivering a lecture:

"Brethren and students, I am going to open to you some notable discoveries that I have made respecting the source or primary cause of all distempers incidental to the human machine; and these, brethren, I attribute to certain animalculæ, or piscatory entities, that insinuate themselves through the pores into the blood, and in that fluid sport, toss, and tumble about like mackerel or cod-fish in the great deep; and to convince you that this is not a mere *gratis dictum*, an hypothesis only, I will give you demonstrative proof. Bring hither the microscope! . . . Take a peep.

"Those two yellow drops were drawn from a subject afflicted with the jaundice—What d'y'ee see?"

"*Last*.—Some little creatures like yellow flies that are hopping and skipping about.

"*Hel*.—Right. Those yellow flies give the tinge to the skin, and undoubtedly cause the disease; and now for the cure! I administer to every patient the two-and-fiftieth part of a scruple of the ovaria or eggs of the spider; these are thrown by the digestive powers into the secretory, there separated from the alimentary, and then precipitated into the circulatory; where finding a proper nidus or nest, they quit their torpid state and vivify, and upon vivification, discerning the flies, their natural food, they immediately fall foul of them, extirpate the race out of the blood, and restore the patient to health."

W. H. B.

Notes.

Mr. Charles Evans, No. 1045 Pratt Avenue, Rogers Park, Chicago, sends us a rather effusive prospectus of his 'American Bibliography: A Chronological Dictionary of All Books, Pamphlets, and Periodical Publications Printed in the United States' from 1639 to 1820, inclusive. The first volume will extend to 1740. How many there will be in all is not stated, but the price of each will be fifteen dollars. Each will have indexes of authors, subjects, printers, and publishers. Seventy thousand titles are estimated. It is Mr. Evans's purpose to append to each title the auction value above ten dollars, so far as ascertainable. This ambitious enterprise is wholly private, and the launching depends on receiving 300 subscriptions.

One of the books now going through the University Press at Cambridge, England, is 'The Unreformed House of Commons: Parliamentary Representation in England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland before 1832,' by Edward Porritt, of Farmington, Conn. The first volume deals with the franchises on which the old House of Commons was elected; the changes which took place in the relations of members and constituents between 1295 and 1832; the incoming of the patronage system, and the relations between members and the patrons by whom they were nominated; the relations of the Crown to the franchise; and the organization of the House of Commons, its officers and procedure. The volume covers the old electoral and parliamentary systems of Scotland and Ireland and the Unions of 1707 and 1800. The work aims principally to show how the representation stood when Grey and Russell approached the question of parliamentary reform, and what causes had made reform necessary. It was written in this country, and the material for it has been obtained chiefly in American libraries. Macmillan will be the American publisher.

The two concluding volumes of the late Canon R. W. Dixon's 'History of the Church of England from the Abolition of the Roman Jurisdiction,' edited during the past year by the Rev. Henry Gee, D.D., will be published immediately by the Oxford University Press (H. Frowde).

The University of Chicago Press announces a series of "Contributions to Education," by Professors John Dewey and Ella Flagg Young of the University. "Isolation in the School," "Ethics in the School," "Types of Modern Educational Theory," are some of the topics.

The Grafton Press, 70 Fifth Avenue, is about to publish Chaucer's 'Nonnes Preeles Tale of the Cok and Hen,' with an introduction by William Cushing Bamburgh. The limited edition will be printed handsomely in black-letter. There will be four antique illustrations.

W. R. Morfill's 'History of Russia from Peter the Great to Alexander II.' is soon to appear with the imprint of James Pott & Co.

'Wireless Telegraphy,' announced by McClure, Phillips & Co., will contain Marconi's history of his epoch-making invention up to date.

In conjunction with Cassell & Co., A. Wessels Company will publish immediately 'Chinese Porcelain,' by Cosmo Monkhouse, with numerous illustrations.

D. C. Heath & Co. have undertaken a 'Workingman's English-Italian Language-Book and Reader,' to meet the needs of our Italian population.

'The Americanization of the World,' by W. T. Stead, is in the press of Horace Markley, No. 6 Vestry Street, New York.

Henry Harland's new novel, 'The Lady Paramount,' will bear Mr. John Lane's imprint, as will Mrs. Leslie Williams's 'Garden in the Suburbs,' 'The Book of Bulbs,' by S. Arnott, and 'Poems,' by Arthur Symonds, in two volumes.

Charles Scribner's Sons have placed a prettily illustrated edition of Stevenson's 'Child's Garden of Verse' in their series for school reading. This will help confirm its lasting quality.

There was room for a new edition of the 'Memoirs of Major-General Heath,' for the original issue has long been out of print. But a new edition would call for careful editing, as the naïve narration of "our General" is very partial, and can hardly be appreciated at its worth without many notes or illustrations drawn from contemporary accounts. The material for these notes was to be found in the large collection of "Heath Papers," still in existence, and the Washington correspondence already published. Yet the editor (and publisher) of the volume before us, Mr. William Abbott, has not availed himself of either of these sources of information and correction, and has been content with adding a few notes drawn from the army rolls, chiefly confined to identifying the officers named in the text. A very few letters have been added in the notes, but the one from Gen. Lee, mentioned in the preface as a remarkable one, cannot be found by the index, and must be sought without that aid. It appears on p. 85. While it is well to have the text of the Memoirs in this form of a limited edition, yet a very good opportunity of making it more valuable has been lost.

In connection with this reprint may be mentioned the same editor's 'Battle of Pell's Point,' which is an attempt to make a mere skirmish into one of the important battles of the Revolution. The effort is not successful, but the illustrations are of interest.

Of five volumes additional to the handsome "Versailles Historical Series" (Hardy, Pratt & Co.), four are given to the Memoirs of D'Argenson and the Cardinal de Bernis; the last, to the letters of Mademoiselle de Lespinasse. These translations, by Miss Wormeley, are literal enough to give one a definite impression of the original styles, and thus reflect the mild fatuity of De Bernis quite as faithfully as the passion of the enamoured lady. But we must note that the following sentence from Sainte-Beuve is hopelessly un-English: "Let us return to the general character of Cardinal de Bernis, whom I did not at first intend to take so politically nor in a manner so grave." From this to Du Maurier's Frankle (or Inglefrank) is no incredible stride. And *stürm und drang* would hardly pass for German in a school exercise.

The name of Madame de Lamballe suggests to the ordinary reader little more than a dramatic page of Carlyle, or perhaps a stanza from Thackeray's "The Chronicle of the Drum." M. Georges Bertin's complete, though disjointed, narrative of the unfortunate noblewoman's life seeks to em-

phasize her estimable character and the unmerited tragedy of the close. An obvious literary defect of this work may be found in the too liberal use of quotations, which greater literary skill would have blended with the author's own text. The translation now offered by Miss Arabella Ward (Godfrey A. S. Wieners) is therefore creditable as successfully dealing with a more than usually refractory original. An appendix of historical notes is not unwelcome.

Mr. Norman Hapgood's 'George Washington' (Macmillan) deals mainly with the life of Washington down to his election as President, the years subsequent to 1789 being but briefly surveyed. In general plan and method of treatment the work suggests the "true biographies," several volumes of which have lately appeared. There is the same copious quotation from letters and journals, the same interesting emphasis upon details, and the same distinctly personal impression as in the well-known biographies by Ford, Curtis, and Fisher. Like those writers, too, Mr. Hapgood brings into prominence sides of Washington's character not commonly dwelt upon—his thoroughly practical and matter-of-fact mind, his mingled modesty and self-confidence, his outward show of courage and faith in spite of inward doubt and trial, and his conscientious devotion to the small details of private and public duty. The result is a presentation of Washington on his human side which, while at times somewhat painful to hero-worshippers, happily avoids the belittling manner into which this style of biography easily falls. As an illustration of Mr. Hapgood's skill in holding the balance true, we may instance his treatment of the brief period, on the eve of the Seven Years' War, in which Washington's ill-concealed desire for a military appointment was coupled with a determination not to accept an appointment save on terms as advantageous to himself as they were commensurate with the need of the colonies. The volume is attractively printed and bound, and the pictures, especially the reproductions of manuscripts, are well executed. We note an obvious misprint on page 8, where 1848 should, of course, be 1748.

'Memorials of William Charles Lake, Dean of Durham, 1869-1894,' edited by his widow (London: Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co.), tells the uneventful story of one who was useful and prominent rather than eminent. Archbishop Temple writes that "he was a very able man" and "a very good man," and Canon Rawlinson calls him "one of the noblest and most remarkable personalities of our day"; but his sphere and fame were wholly Anglican. The portrait shows a fine, strong, kind face; the text seems to disclose a character safe, sound, and solid, one of the men who, short of individual greatness, go far to make up that of England. He was one of Arnold's boys at Rugby, and intimate with Stanley there and at Oxford, where he became fellow and tutor of Balliol, and held various University and governmental posts, and, as afterwards at Durham, did much ruling and reforming work. A High Churchman but not a Ritualist, he "had sympathies with the three different schools," kept friends with members of each, and opposed the persecution of any. His intimates were disappointed

that he missed the great prizes as an undergraduate, and perhaps (though this is not admitted) that he made no more noise in later life; but he raised the University of Durham to honorable rank. His brief autobiography is eked out by letters, newspaper articles, etc., enough to make a goodly octavo, which is yet rather a thing of shreds and patches.

Dr. Edward J. Chinnoch's 'A Few Notes on Julian, and a Translation of his Public Letters' (London: Nutt) is a modest booklet by a British scholar, of interest to students of the last pagan Emperor. One of the notes suggests that, as "all the accounts we have of St. George were written by his deadly enemies," perhaps he was not as black as he was painted.

The college student of to-day who should make mistakes in the choice of his college or the conduct of college life would not do so for lack of good advice. In 'The College Student and his Problems' (Macmillan) Mr. Canfield offers the counsels of one who has directed two Western universities and is now officially connected with a third in the East. The difficulty about this sort of book is that the student who might be the better for reading it is not the sort of person who could be induced to glance at its contents. Probably oral advice to collective gatherings of students in their first year is the only sort that will come home to the naturally shiftless or indolent among them. Mr. Canfield's warnings against the abuse of the elective system—which he aptly compares with dynamite—as at once dangerous and useful—against too much athletics, and, finally, against the waste of those four precious years of opportunity are well reasoned and convincing. Perhaps he is too much inclined to give both sides of each question with such force that (as, for instance, in the matter of choosing between a university and a college) one is left with a more vivid impression of the difficulties involved than of his cautious solution; but it is well to have these questions carefully argued, and in any case one is likely to make a decision with a sublime disregard of advisers. In his appendix Mr. Canfield gives a useful table of the expenses of students at the thirty-one more important colleges and universities.

In 'My Host the Enemy, and Other Tales: Sketches of Life and Adventure on the Border Line of the West' (Fleming H. Revell Co.), Mr. Franklin Welles Calkins tells of real Indians and lifelike borderers a number of stories, ranging from indifferent to excellent. While by experience made master of his material, he frequently slights it, for some of the better tales are the merest framework, and disappoint by bareness and brevity. In the title story the narrator takes refuge from a blizzard in the tepee of hostile Sioux, who give him full measure of hospitality until the blizzard is past and he departs. Then the Sioux pursue and shoot at him for some miles. Here was opportunity for a fine story, but Mr. Calkins has so good an eye for dramatic situations that he neglects the stage business that helps them along, and shears the tale of half its legitimate measure. However, if we must have faults, brevity is a good one, and the bald style at least convinces of the veracity of the narrative. Mr. Calkins will do excellent work when he adds to his forceful way of driving on a story a little grace in embel-

ishment. As a rule, we prefer prefaces to "forewords," but Mr. Calkins's few lines of introduction come well under the latter designation.

Among recent popular books pertaining to trees is one by G. Frederick Schwarz, entitled 'Forest Trees and Forest Scenery' (New York: The Grafton Press). The author discusses briefly some of the characteristic features of the forms of trees belonging to the broad-leaf and cone-bearing types, and indicates the relation of these features to their beauty. The influence of the undergrowth and of the climbing forms, the manner of attachment of the leaves, and other features, are considered in their relation to the æsthetic effect produced. Plainly the writer has studied trees and forests closely, and knows them well, although he really gives but little information in his book. He has rather concerned himself in accounting for the beauty of the forest by an appreciative examination of its component parts.

Granting the necessity of compressing so large a subject as the history of architecture into so small a compass as to be carried in a waistcoat pocket, Mr. P. Leslie Waterhouse's 'The Story of the Art of Building' (D. Appleton & Co.) is an admirable performance. It is evidently the outcome of much careful study, and shows a good grip of the subject. The relative importance of its several parts is well considered. Its very brevity forces it to pass so quickly from the work of one age to that of the next that the reader is not likely to weary for lack of change of scene. Beginning with the work of the ancient Egyptians, it moves rapidly through that of the Assyrians and Persians to the firm ground of Greek architecture, a safe point of departure for a journey through the many styles that have intervened between the time of Pericles and the twentieth century. The book will be of use to persons who desire some knowledge of the subject, yet lack opportunity to study the longer histories. To such it may be commended as a clear and reliable statement of well-ascertained facts. It would have been greatly helped by a more liberal supply of illustrations, and it has been distinctly injured by a chapter on Architecture in America added by the American publishers—a chapter bearing no proper relation to the other parts of the book, and greatly inferior to them in both its matter and its manner.

The fatherhood of God is usually regarded as the first tenet of modern theology; yet the Rev. W. J. Miller, in his preface to 'The American Church Dictionary and Cyclopædia' (Whittaker), would limit it by St. Cyprian's antique apothegm, "He cannot have God for his Father who has not the Church for his Mother." From this specimen brick one might construct, or anticipate, the entire edifice; but this is an undogmatic age, and the "dictionary" appropriately begins with Ablutions and ends with Zuchetto—which, the uninstructed may learn, is a skull-cap, black for priests, purple for bishops. "Doctrines" are indeed promised, as well as "facts, customs, and usages," but Atonement and Inspiration are not among the titles, and Apostolic Succession is judiciously stated to be "more of a fact than a doctrine." On the other hand, here is no lack of Vestments, Orders, Saints' Days, and the like; and here be such strange terms, for our enlightenment, as Antependium and

Proanaphora, which latter, we are told, should by rights be substituted for Antecommunion. The work is very much smaller and slighter than Mr. A. A. Benton's 'Church Cyclopædia' (1884), and others that have preceded it. One would not like to say that it is "laid level to the meanest apprehension," but it is apparently intended for a certain class of those who take their ideas from the sermon and the Sunday school (not graded). Deep thinkers and earnest inquirers would scarcely select Mr. Miller as a guide; yet there are many of him, and their audiences and following are large.

Mr. Lummis's very individual monthly magazine, the *Land of Sunshine*, published at Los Angeles, takes on a new name, *Out West*, with the first (January) number of its sixteenth volume. The change sounds like a topographical expansion eastward, in accordance with the proverbial eastward longing of the "Slopers," but the Pacific Coast will, we judge, be still the peculiar province of this periodical. An obvious expansion is in the bulk, which is a sign of prospering, and the ever abundant illustrations seem even more numerous than usual. For tourists ignorant or needing to be reminded of the building of a branch of the Santa Fé Road from Williams to the Grand Cañon of the Colorado, the editor supplies some fresh views from the Bright Angel trail, where the railroad company is about to erect a commodious hotel. They will pitch it, not on the very brink, which would be like a desecration and would soon make the marvellous prospect commonplace, but in a spot where there is no hint of the Cañon, any more than from the railroad. One cannot, therefore, says this racy writer, "sit on the veranda and expectorate into the gorge." The tourist will get the surprise which is so large a part of the emotion on looking down into this mountain-peopled chasm.

The *Library Journal* for January sums up Mr. Andrew Carnegie's gifts to American libraries in the year just closed, and makes the total \$13,813,000. No section has been neglected. Richmond and Nashville, at the South, got \$100,000 each; and the same sum went to Leadville, Col., Ottawa, and Winnipeg, Manitoba. The Braddock, Duquesne, and Homestead Carnegie libraries received a million, as did St. Louis; New York city, five millions; Detroit and San Francisco, \$750,000.

Commissioner Swan's fourteenth report on the custody and condition of the public records of Massachusetts shows the good effect of a law recommended by him enabling towns to choose a clerk for three years instead of annually; but he now desires that this be made compulsory, for obvious reasons. He exhibits photographs of the seemingly hopeless roll of Stockbridge records before and after being bound in silk—a marvellous transformation. He has also a sadly amusing chapter on the vagaries of ill-equipped official copyists of the elder records.

The International Congress of Historical Sciences, which met at The Hague in 1898 and at Paris in 1900, will hold its third meeting at Rome during April, 1902. The Congress will consist of sixteen sections, including all the departments of historical science; and as the section on Mediæval and Modern Literatures is as yet unrepresented by American scholars, an American

Committee, including Prof. C. M. Gayley of the University of California, Prof. Henry A. Beers of Yale, Dr. F. I. Carpenter of Chicago, Dr. J. E. Spingarn of Columbia, and Prof. H. A. Rennett of the University of Pennsylvania, has been formed (1) to interest the American public in the literary section of the Congress, and to increase its membership; (2) to obtain an adequate representation of American scholars in the section, so that European scholars may become more familiar with American work in literary scholarship; and (3) to consider the possibility of inducing the Congress to hold its next meeting, in 1904, in some American city. The membership fee of twelve francs should be sent to the President of the section, Prof. Francesco Novati, 25 Via Borgonuovo, Milan, Italy. This nominal fee procures the Publications of the Congress, and a number of important special privileges, including reduced rates on all the Italian railroads. All papers presented to the Congress will be printed in its Publications, and it is hoped that scholars who cannot be present in person will be able to send some original contribution to be read at the meeting of the literary section. Further information may be obtained from Prof. Novati, or from the Secretary of the American committee, Dr. J. E. Spingarn, Columbia University, New York.

The Association for Promotion of Scientific Research by Women announces that applications should be received before March first for the American Women's Table at the Zoölogical Station at Naples. For the summer of 1902 the Association offers the free use of an Investigator's Table at the Marine Biological Laboratory at Wood's Holl, Massachusetts, to any applicant who is eligible for the Naples Table, and who may desire the benefit of preliminary work at Wood's Holl. Application blanks and further information may be obtained from the Secretary, Miss Cornelia M. Clapp, Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Mass.

—In line with the interest in art and artistic improvement noticed in other of the February magazines, *Harper's* gives place to a sketch of the movement initiated nearly a decade ago by Eugene Broerman for the artistic embellishment of the cities of Belgium. This took the form of an organized society, "L'Oeuvre Nationale Belge," in Brussels, in 1894, whose object was "to clothe in artistic form all that progress has made useful in the public life," such as street signs, flag-poles, street lights, poles for electric railways, bridges, etc. Treated with contempt at first by the municipal government of Brussels, the "work" soon gained such general popularity as to command the respect and aid of both national and local authorities. Dr. Süring of the Royal Meteorological Institute, Berlin, gives an interesting account of the upper atmosphere, based on ascents made last July. He was accompanied in the first of these ascents by Dr. von Schröter of Vienna, and Mr. Berson, who had previously made very high ascents in Germany and England; on the second occasion he ascended with Mr. Berson alone. On the first voyage the physiological effects of height on the body were carefully noted, with the conclusion that the rarity of the high atmosphere in itself produces no material modification in the functions of the

heart and lungs, as usually supposed, the difficulty with these organs being due solely to lack of oxygen. The height reached in this ascent was only 24,000 feet, but on the second voyage, with a good supply of compressed oxygen along, an elevation of 35,000 feet was registered, with a temperature of -40 degrees Fahrenheit. Dr. Süring discredits the height of 37,000 feet said to have been attained by Glaisher and Coxwell in 1862. The conclusion of Mark Twain's "Double-Barrelled Detective Story" seems to admit of its classification as an intentional burlesque on the overwrought detective tale.

—The fifth volume of the "Writings of James Monroe" (Putnams) begins with the termination of Monroe's futile negotiation with Canning on the affair of the *Chesapeake*. Curtly rebuffed by that minister, Monroe returned to America with a double grievance against the Administration, for he resented the appointment of Pinckney as a colleague, and he keenly felt the rejection of his English treaty. He at once took up the task of vindicating his course, and, after an explanation and reconciliation with Jefferson, fastened upon Madison as a proper object of his revenge. The labored defence outlined for political use is entirely characteristic of the writer, for he sought to defend Jefferson at the expense of the Secretary of State. From the "Republican minority," now hostile to Jefferson's Administration, he held aloof, yet conducted a campaign for the Presidency on his own behalf by personal solicitation and criticism of Madison. When Madison had won, Monroe asked Jefferson to send him on a mission to France or to England, the scenes of his diplomatic defeats. A refusal brings out a long account of the foreign relations of the United States, proving his ineptitude as to the broader aspects of the questions involved. He felt hurt that Madison did not call him to the Department of State, or place him at the head of the army, and rather resented a suggestion from Jefferson that he accept one of the governments of Louisiana. This period, from his return from England to the end of the war of 1812, places him in an unlovely light, that of a needy and undignified office-seeker.

—That Monroe had good cause to complain of the treatment accorded to him by Jefferson and Madison is true; but his portentously long expressions of his feelings make wearisome and unprofitable reading. Tazewell and Taylor were made the depositaries of his confidences, and a letter of thirty pages in print suffices for no more than a beginning of his grievances. Yet in these letters the Monroe of later years begins to appear. He is the conciliator, the politician who is to silence party strife. He believes the President should cease to be the head of a party, and blames Jefferson for abusing the power of removal in such a way as to perpetuate the Federalists' influence. He refuses to attack Madison's administration, and, exhibiting himself as a man who has suffered much, pleads with other malcontents for moderation and forbearance, such as he has himself shown. He reaps his reward. A short term as Governor of Virginia was followed by his appointment to the Department of State by the very man he had so bitterly been criticizing for months. The war made his place

almost a sinecure, and he was eager to take a military command. As temporary Secretary of War he wrote some memorials on proposed campaigns, but disaster after disaster to the American army rendered it hopeless to experiment on the offensive. Eustis and Armstrong, Hull, Dearborn, and others went into retirement, and Monroe emerges with credit! We regret that Mr. Hamilton gives so few of Monroe's public papers, consigning the few printed to an appendix. They are essential to a proper understanding of his character.

—'Cavalier and Puritan in the Days of the Stuarts,' by Lady Newdigate-Newdegate (Longmans), has been "compiled from the private papers and diary of Sir Richard Newdigate, second Baronet, with extracts from manuscript news-letters addressed to him between 1675 and 1789." Compared with 'The Cheverels of Cheverel Manor,' published by the author some three years ago, this volume is less attractive in form and less striking in contents. The Cheverels of 'Mr. Gilfil's Love-Story' were Sir Roger and Lady Newdigate of Arbury in Warwickshire. Sir Richard Newdigate was also the master of Arbury, but in character and originality he falls far short of the later Sir Roger. His chief merit was that he had the taste "to employ Wren, Lely, and Grinling Gibbons in beautifying his home for posterity." His besetting sins were carelessness and extravagance, carried to the point of burlesque. One meets with such characters in 'Castle Rackrent,' and fiction does well to make the most of them, but it is not often in real life that one encounters a man who, after alienating a large number of inherited acres, can write in his journal: "And whereas I rose this morning £55,000 in debt, I shall go to bed without owing more than £4,000, and towards that I have £3,000 of the assignment, which will carry a perpetual interest three years hence. Blessed be God's holy Name." Many other entries in the same journal are naïve enough to be amusing, e. g., the following under August 6, 1682: "This day I fasted as a revenge upon myself for sin, and pray'd fervently tho' little. . . . Troubled with toothache, cured with sack." Perhaps the largest ingredient of this compilation is furnished by the news-letters which Sir Richard Newdigate took and preserved. Every one is familiar with the character of such compositions and the degree of their reliability as material for history. Sometimes they are entertaining, often they are padded out with all kinds of gossip derived from the coffee-house or the writer's own imagination. Lady Newdigate-Newdegate's own part in the piece is well done, and if her present work falls below the level of 'The Cheverels,' that is the fault of her records. On the whole, this sketch of social life at the close of the seventeenth century is fairly interesting, though not important. It suggests in some ways the class of book which is prepared by Mr. John Ashton, but possesses greater unity and deals with persons of a more aristocratic type.

—Mr. F. B. Sanborn's 'Personality of Thoreau' (Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed) is his third attempt to describe Thoreau, and, although the briefest of them all, is the most satisfactory, mainly for the reason that it confines itself more closely to direct personal impression than the 'Life'

of 1882 or the 'Familiar Letters' of 1894. We have at the outset a rejection of the too common notion that Thoreau was a deliberate copy, which only succeeded in being a caricature, of Emerson. Their minds were of one family, but of external resemblance there was little beyond that of the handwriting. Still, can Lowell and others have been so much mistaken here as Mr. Sanborn thinks? It is true, as he says, that it is difficult to copy Emerson, but it is less difficult to take on something of his form through vital sympathy; and what Brownlee Brown did, and John Albee has done more recently, Thoreau may sometimes have done without impeaching his originality and without justifying the least possible reproach. Mr. Sanborn's account of the Thoreau family is vivid, and has the accent of complete sincerity with its items of Mrs. Thoreau's social tartness and her husband's genial assumption of a worse defect of hearing than he had, in order to escape responsibility for the harsher sallies of her wit. Mr. Sanborn's earliest note on Thoreau's appearance remarked "a huge Emersonian nose," for which the wags held Thoreau responsible, and "his collar turned over like Emerson's." The character of his walks, which Mr. Sanborn shared, is distinguished from that of Emerson's and Channing's in a delightful manner. He did not trust his memory of natural appearances, but made his notes "with his eye on the object." Thoreau's singing of "Tom Bowline" is, perhaps, the most surprising of Mr. Sanborn's reminiscences. The most pathetic passage is that touching Thoreau's partial alienation from Emerson; the most instructive that on Thoreau's classical scholarship, "better than Emerson's, Channing's, or Hawthorne's," and not inferior to Lowell's, each judged in middle life. A book about Thoreau limited to five hundred copies seems a queer paradox, when one thinks of the unsold copies of 'The Week' dumped on the author's hands. This book is beautifully got up in every respect, but it is a pity that its cost will make it the collector's trophy, when it should be widely read. Why should not Mr. Sanborn treat Emerson, Ellery Channing, and Alcott in this concise and personal manner, and put the four studies into one democratic book? We do not advise the inclusion of Hawthorne, who, for all his Concord residence, was a spirit of another color.

—Those familiar with the Rapenburg and Stationsweg in Leyden will recall the familiar figure and handsome face of Prof. Dr. Cornelis Petrus Tiele, which, during the last five years, showed increasing signs of age and infirmity. Born on the 16th of December, 1830, at Leyden, most of his life (almost eventless from the point of view of the man of action) has been spent in his native land. After passing through the elementary schools, gymnasium, and university of his native city, he entered the Remonstrant Seminary at Amsterdam, and received his doctorate of theology after a paper of Annotations upon the Gospel of John. He served in the pastorate from 1853 to 1873, first at Moordrecht and then at Rotterdam. Called to be professor in the Remonstrant Seminary in Leyden, his inaugural address was on the Place of Ethnic Religions in the History of Religion, an address worthy to be called epoch-

making. Four years later he was made professor of the science of religion in the University of Leyden, and his opening lecture was upon the Results of Assyriology for the Comparative History of Religion. Thenceforward he continued steadily his researches in theological science, producing those solid works on the comparative history of the Egyptian and Semitic religion and on Babylonian and Assyrian history which have been reproduced in several languages. He wrote many articles for the great encyclopædias in Dutch, French, and German, corresponded with many learned societies, and delivered in 1886 the Gifford lectures at the University of Edinburgh, which institution, like that of Dublin, bestowed upon him a doctor's degree. The American Oriental, Royal Asiatic, American Philosophical, and the London Biblical Archaeology Societies, and the Society of Biblical Literature in America, honored themselves by bestowing honorary membership upon him. Dr. Tiele belonged to the Royal Academy of Sciences in Amsterdam, and had been decorated with the orders of Orange-Nassau, of the Netherlands Lion, and of the Belgian Eikenkroon of Leopold. His 'Outlines of the History of Religion,' published in 1888, has been translated into seven languages. Almost to the very day of his death at Leyden on Saturday, January 11, he was intellectually active and intensely interested in affairs, especially in South Africa. The Dutch newspapers are full of his praises.

NICHOLS'S LETTERS OF ERASMUS.

The Epistles of Erasmus, from his Earliest Letters to his Fifty-first Year, arranged in order of time: English Translations from the early correspondence, with a Commentary confirming the chronological arrangement and supplying further biographical matter. By Francis Morgan Nichols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902.

This is the first attempt to translate the Letters of Erasmus into English in any systematic fashion. The more familiar ones, especially those bearing more directly on the life of the writer or of his contemporaries—such, for example, as the so-called Epistle to Grunnius, the Epistle to Prior Servatius, and those containing descriptions of Colet, More, and Froben—have often been done into English more or less freely. The rest have been exploited over and over again by biographers of Erasmus, and by all who have attempted to describe the civilization of the Reformation period.

Mr. Nichols, an English scholar best known by his edition in 1865 of Britton's 'Commentary on English Law,' has performed a new service, not merely by translating the letters, but by attempting to arrange them in a satisfactory chronological order. The present volume contains the correspondence down to Erasmus's return from Italy to England in 1509, and the editor holds out the expectation that he may, at no very distant day, put forth a second volume containing the letters to the outbreak of the Lutheran Reformation in 1517. That he has made substantial progress upon this second instalment is witnessed by the chronological Register published here and containing all the letters to 1517. It is greatly to be hoped that he will be able to fulfil his promise.

Of the two objects held in view, a sound translation and a usable chronological scheme, the second will have the larger interest for scholars. Down to the beginning of the eighteenth century the editors of the Letters, including Erasmus himself, had but the slightest regard to their arrangement. The chief interest was the literary, even the rhetorical one; and the historical, scientific side of the matter was left to take care of itself. The great edition of LeClerc in 1703-06 had at least the merit of bringing together all then available material and of suggesting the importance of an accurate chronology; but it came painfully short of its own requirements. It made a feeble effort here and there to correct some of the more obvious errors, but left more of these than it amended, and did not even attempt to establish any principle by which letters undated or wrongly dated could be referred to their proper places. Yet for two centuries this edition has served as practically the only source from which biographers and historians have been compelled to draw. In 1831 Dr. A. Richter devoted a doctorate dissertation to an attempt to fix the chronology of the letters as far as 1509, and was followed in 1896 by Dr. Max Reich, who attempted the same service for those between 1509 and 1517.

These are the sole modern predecessors of Mr. Nichols. He has utilized them without slavishly following them. His conclusions differ from theirs at many points, and he has generally given with sufficient clearness his reasons for his own results. It would be too much to say that he has laid down any precise leading principles which could apply even in a majority of cases. Indeed, any such laying down of principles must have resulted in immediate disaster. The vast correspondence of Erasmus, especially the early portion of it here under discussion, is singularly detached from the general movement of human life. There are but few points at which he can be corrected by reference to events well fixed as to chronology. His early correspondents are men whom he has illustrated rather than men who can throw light on him. It seems like a gleam in the darkness surrounding Erasmus's birth-year when we learn from him that he was a few months older than Colet; we consult the biographies of Colet only to find that they all fix his birth by reference to this same passage of Erasmus. So we are always in danger of the vicious circle. Yet it is by internal evidence of this sort that most of the points of attachment for a sequence of the letters have to be gained.

An obvious clue in many instances would be the reference in letters to the several periods in Erasmus's own life; but here again the limits of these periods have to be determined chiefly by the letters themselves. If we decide, for example, that he must have been in Paris between certain dates, it is clear that a letter dated from England in that interval is misdated as to either place or time. All this would be plain sailing if we were only quite sure of our first premise; but unfortunately much of this fundamental fixing of bounds is sadly like guesswork.

Mr. Nichols has evidently given great care to this part of his work. He has been obliged to read the letters thoroughly, because he has had to translate them—an advantage his predecessors have not always

enjoyed. He has weighed his evidence bit by bit, carefully, and has in general used it with discretion. He has been modest in his claims to final accuracy, and pretends to no more than he has really accomplished, namely, to furnish to the student of Erasmus and his time a plausibly consistent scheme of his early life and correspondence. It is altogether probable that the future biographer of Erasmus, if he be writing in English, will accept Mr. Nichols's system as a ready-made device likely to be as nearly accurate as any he could construct for himself; but how far we are still from a result upon which independent inquirers working each in his own way are likely to agree, may be seen from a comparison of the registers of Mr. Nichols and Dr. Richter. The number of cases in which they agree in placing the same two letters in immediate sequence is about one in every five. Yet Dr. Richter's system, taken as a whole, has as much to recommend it as has that of Mr. Nichols. Each is simply the result of accumulated intelligent guessing on a great number of separate points. We do not think that the cause of historical learning would suffer greatly if either of these schemes were to be followed by future scholars. We simply point out that neither of them, nor indeed any other likely to be worked out by comparing them, can claim to have solved once for all the many knotty problems involved.

In regard to the translations themselves, there is much to commend. They are intended to include at least a portion of almost every letter, no matter how unimportant it may appear, and in so far the plan is to be praised. It is a matter of regret, however, that Mr. Nichols has not been willing to go a step further and to give us each letter complete, even if it were at the cost of somewhat lessening the luxury of type and paper. No editor can assume just what part of a work is going to prove "interesting" to his readers. It is the fatal English subjectivity again. If such a collection as this is of any use, it must meet a great variety of demands, and the only way to do this would be to give the letters entire and leave the selection to each reader according to his need. Mr. Nichols goes so far as to indicate generally by asterisks where he makes an omission. "But when it is immaterial, the reader is not troubled with these signs." In other words, the reader can never be sure that parts of a letter are not left out without any notice to him. Cases of this offence are happily rare, but they are of a piece with the suggestion that "the judicious reader will pass with a rapid glance over the Epistles contained in the two first chapters." How can the editor tell what the judicious reader will do? Certainly, the more judicious he is, the more he will prefer to use his own judgment in picking out what he needs for a special purpose. To take an example or two at random: A letter (No. 135 in Mr. Nichols's register), written to the Abbot of St. Bertin, contains a long account of a religious performance near Orléans, which is full of interesting matter for the student of popular superstitions. It is here omitted entirely. The well-known letter to the Princess Anna of Veere is given only in fragments, so that its value as a specimen of Erasmus's literary style is quite lost. It is true that it is made up chiefly of rhetorical turns and phrases, but

this is precisely characteristic. It is a pity that the reader should be deprived of Erasmus's defence of Laurentius Valla as an author worthy the attention of good Christians (ep. 182), merely because to give it would have added another page or two.

The quality of the translation is excellent. Mr. Nichols has generally succeeded in giving the spirit of the original without sacrificing the quality of his own English. He has been willing to recognize that Erasmus was not always bent on cultivating the "grand style." Erasmus's Latin was a very flexible instrument. He could preach, philosophize, scold, beg, brag, whine, joke, or protest in it with equal skill, and it is the obvious duty of the translator to follow him in all his moods without fear of consequences. It may be thought even a shade too free when Mr. Nichols (p. 178) translates "*manus enim manum fricat*" by "caw me, caw thee," since "one hand rub the other" is what Erasmus said, and good English, too. Why say: "A horse that might be bought for an old song," when the writer said: "for a farthing (*obolo*)" (p. 181)? In his rendering of proper names, Mr. Nichols falls into some oddities through an excess of desire to be as English as possible. "Batt" is really no improvement on "Battus," and why "Gillis," when "Giles" is the usual English for Aegidius? But these are trifles. In the main we have here a thoroughly sound translation, even and accurate.

The running commentary accompanying the translations gives us the detail of the process by which the results embodied in the Register were obtained. It shows a long, patient, and careful occupation with things Erasmian in all their great variety. It is not free from conjectures—with such material no work could be—but in general the conjecture has some reasonable basis. The principle of arrangement is usually that the comment precedes the letter, but it sometimes follows it, and it is not always easy to bring together all the evidence bearing upon a given epistle. For this the typographical scheme is partly at fault, the paragraph of comment always looking as if it belonged with the preceding instead of with the following epistle. We venture to suggest for the second volume the plan of placing first the Register number, then the commentary, including the dates as given in the several editions and as corrected by the editor, and then the text. This would make each letter and its comment appear under one distinct heading. Further, we should be glad to be spared the utterly useless page-headings, and to have in their place something that would further the purpose of the book—perhaps the number of the chapter and letter on the *recto* and the headings of the sections of the Register on the *verso*.

We are especially indebted to Mr. Nichols for his care on points of geography. He corrects Mr. Drummond and others by placing the castle of Tournhem, not on the island of Walcheren, where the chief property of the Marchioness of Veere lay, but near Calais. He gives us bits of archaeological reference which show careful information, presumably from personal inspection, regarding the scenes of Erasmus's early life. His bibliographical allusions are numerous, and generally useful in fixing some point of chronology. On the very delicate point of determining personal mo-

tives, Mr. Nichols is no more to be trusted than others. He takes Erasmus's own statements too readily at their face value, though, like all other editors, he feels how slippery they are. It is certainly odd that no letters from Battus have been preserved, but it is quite gratuitous to suppose that Erasmus destroyed them because he was ashamed of their style.

But, after all is said, the fact remains that this is the most important contribution of recent times to the subject of Erasmus. We look forward with interest to the appearance of the second volume.

SAINTSBURY'S EARLIER RENAISSANCE.

The Earlier Renaissance. By George Saintsbury. [Periods of European Literature.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, pp. xvi, 423.

In considering Professor Saintsbury's latest book, it is pertinent to inquire, after the manner of Gibbon's famous dictum, what the not unscholarly reader may expect to find in a volume dealing with European literature during the closing years of the fifteenth century and the first half of the sixteenth. These are the limits of his subject as defined by the author himself, and the *communis sensus* which he so often invokes may reasonably look forward to the solution of certain historical problems, and the exposition of certain important literary developments, which are most intimately connected with this particular period.

The fifteenth century in Italy is remarkable for the rise and development of a great movement connected with the revival of classical literature, which, while not immediately productive of great works of the imagination, bore fruit, in the next century, in the fields of creative literature, of speculative philosophy, and of natural science. The progress and influence of Humanism are among the most important facts in the history of the modern spirit, and an adequate account of them may be expected in a series which professes to be "a complete and continuous history" of European literature. The period of origin does not, indeed, lie within the province of the present volume, but, for the sake of unity and continuity, the author of the preceding volume on the 'Transition Period' has wisely left to Mr. Saintsbury the whole subject of humanistic culture, for exclusive and exhaustive treatment in his opening chapter, on "The Harvest-Time of Humanism."

Here the first disappointment awaits the reader. The chapter swarms with Latin poets and prose-men, from Politian, Folengo, and Johannes Secundus to Erasmus, Buchanan, and More; and, as a summary of the Renaissance accomplishment in Latin writing, it is interesting and satisfactory. But the history of Latin verse is not the history of Humanism, a movement which has formed and colored literary taste and fixed the scheme of higher training in schools and universities for centuries; a movement whose feeding-roots go deeper into the human spirit, and whose influence on modern literature and thought is of far vaster consequence, than the achievements of individual Latinists. Starting with the ideal conceived if not fully formulated by Petrarch, the philosophical historian of Humanism might have traced the initial spread of the ideal through Petrarch's dis-

ciples, such as Boccaccio, who initiated that fondness for patient and laborious scholarship which has permeated Germanic erudition; Luigi Marsigli, who founded the first learned society or academy; and Coluccio Salutati, through whose efforts Humanism was given rights, and an honorable position, in the state. Such an historian would have shown how the movement, gathering strength as it proceeded, devoted itself at first too exclusively to minute investigation and to servile imitation of classical antiquity; how it was then given critical direction and scientific method by such a man as Lorenzo Valla, the direct ancestor of modern German scholarship; how it was soon afterwards married to æsthetic taste in the work of a Politian; and how, finally, under the dictatorship of a Bembo, it was systematically grafted on the vernacular literature, and permeated popular taste. Perhaps Mr. Saintsbury's lack of the historic sense, and his well-known impressionistic methods of criticism, precluded the possibility of his giving an adequate survey of Humanism in this particular manner; but no justification can be found for a mode of treatment which gives three pages to Johannes Secundus, while indicating Filelfo by name only, ignoring the great influence of Bembo on creative and especially on critical literature, and relegating to a footnote Lorenzo Valla, "il più ardito novatore e il pensatore più originale del secolo," according to the latest historian of Italian literature.

In a volume dealing with the Earlier Renaissance, however, the reader may reasonably expect to find more than an account of Humanism in Italy. Through its influence the literatures of Europe first became infused with the modern spirit, and, through the influence of vernacular Italian, first assumed a definite literary form. In a history of this period it seems fair to demand through what channels these influences came, what were their immediate effects, and how finally they bore fruit. Here again the reader is doomed to disappointment; Italian influences are scarcely if ever considered, and some of the great names in the history of Transalpine Humanism, of English and French Hellenism, are conspicuous by their absence. What shall be said of a history of the early English Renaissance which does not even mention by name such men as Grocyn and Linacre, or William Lily and Dean Colet? What shall be said of a history of the French Renaissance which ignores such men as Budæus, the first of French Hellenists, Ramus, whose philosophical radicalism infuses his rhetorical treatises, Robert and Henri Estienne, the great publishers and scholars, Amyot, prince of translators, and a dozen others? It is no sufficient answer to say that some of these scholars left behind them no enduring works of literature for the historian to label and appraise. This is the basis of Mr. Saintsbury's impressionism, but the historian of literature is ever obliged to deal with men, like Dr. Johnson, like Sir Philip Sidney, whose personal influence far outweighs the value of their extant works. The movement inaugurated by Wyatt and Surrey is unintelligible without some account of its antecedent preparation by Grocyn, Linacre, and Colet; but as yet Early English Humanism has not received satisfactory treatment.

A third great factor in the history of this

period is the revival of criticism. The recovery of Aristotle's 'Poetics,' joined with the critical spirit of Italian Humanism, produced in the sixteenth century a remarkable outburst of criticism, that first formulated those canons of neo-classical art which were to dominate European literature until the end of the eighteenth century. It is due to Mr. Saintsbury to say that his is the first history of the Renaissance to include a chapter on this important theme. But it must be added that his treatment, with some slight differences of judgment rather than of fact, is almost wholly, and confessedly, borrowed from a recent monograph devoted to the same subject. Aretino, perhaps the most influential critic of the Cinquecento, and Erasmus, as great in this field as in so many others, are discussed elsewhere in the book, but not in the chapter on criticism. Dr. Karl Vossler's interesting study in the *Neue Heidelberger Jahrbücher* (1900, X. 38 seq.) supplies the deficiency in the case of Aretino, but no satisfactory account of Erasmus as a literary critic has yet appeared. We trust that Mr. Saintsbury will see fit to supply it in the forthcoming volume of his monumental 'History of Criticism.'

The early Renaissance witnessed not only the birth of Humanism and Criticism, but also, as is pointed out in the preface, the beginnings of the modern drama. Here Mr. Saintsbury's accomplishment coincides more satisfactorily with the expectation of the reader. His account of the origins of the vernacular drama in Italy, France, Germany, and England is not without merit; but his survey of the artificial Latin plays of the sixteenth century is especially worthy of praise, as being without a prototype, at least in English, and as a most accessible and interesting introduction to an obscure subject.

Finally, the historian of the Renaissance must be tested by his judgment of the great authors and his interpretation of the great literary monuments of the period—the 'Orlando Furioso,' the 'Courtier' of Castiglione, the Sonnets of Michelangelo, the 'Gargantua' and 'Pantagruel' of Rabelais, the 'Colloquies' of Erasmus, the political and historical writings of Machiavelli. These are the tests of his critical judgment, as the former were of his historic sense; and, in either case, Mr. Saintsbury's virtues and shortcomings are sufficiently manifest. His deficiency in the latter regard and his contempt for all standards of taste make his criticism, in the end, merely and wholly a matter of individual impression. He cannot understand Machiavelli; he does not fully recognize the chief glory of Michelangelo's genius; he is blind to the high qualities of the 'Cortegiano'; but his fondness for Erasmus, and, above all, for Rabelais, is justified by some excellent, if not always very discriminating, passages of criticism. His is, after all, the method popularized by Swinburne's prose—the method of lyric rhapsody and Elizabethan vituperation. This we feel especially when (p. 80) he compares the "coarse and earthy partisanship of Luther, the sour fanaticism of Calvin, and the reactionary Machiavellism of the Jesuits," with the genial and urbane tone of Erasmus, which we miss only too often in his own pages. Considering his slipshod style, his barbarous coinage of words and phrases, his cocksure and arbitrary spirit, his bitter and narrow

partisanship, we are often tempted to echo his own words regarding the Revised Version (p. 249, note), and to think that in this volume, too, "the laity might surely be spared its frequently controversial alterations of sense and its generally hideous cacophonies of sound."

It were unjust, however, to part with Mr. Saintsbury on such bad terms. This, like all his other books, gives many evidences of a wider reading than is usually associated to-day with English scholarship; and the reader will find in it much valuable information difficult to find elsewhere. We have noticed several slight errors, or perhaps slips of the pen; e. g., "Burckhart's *Deutsche Dichter der 16ten Jahrhunderts*" (p. 348) should be "Brockhaus's *Deutsche Dichter des 16ten Jahrhunderts*."

RECENT NOVELS.

The Imp and the Angel. By Josephine Dodge Daskam. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A Lighthouse Village. By Louise Lyndon Sibley. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A House Party. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

Margaret Warrener. By Alice Brown. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Marietta: A Maid of Venice. By F. Marion Crawford. The Macmillan Co.

There be children's books for children, and children's books for adults; children's books, too, there be which over the children's shoulders exchange mocking winks with the grown-ups, like Roman augurs. Miss Daskam's book does not belong to the first class, though, in saying so, we do not forget the historic shower of contradiction poured upon the unlucky reviewer who predicted that 'Alice in Wonderland' would appeal mainly to grown-up readers. A children's crusade was the sequel. We venture to call Miss Daskam's book a very engaging member of our second class. He who writes such an one, let him take great heed lest he fall into the third. Miss Daskam has escaped this peril nearly throughout. Her tales are full of simplicity, naturalness, fun, and charm, and no one of any age will be sadder for reading them. The illustrations are unusually pretty and suitable; the little hero Imp, in particular, winning his way straight to the affections.

'A Lighthouse Village' is an absolutely unpretending little book, its sketches made so slightly as often to seem mere note-taking. But, for all that, or because of that, there is excellent entertainment between its covers. The salt of a lighthouse is like no other salt in the world. Its savor penetrates these modest pages. When the lighthouse is on the New England coast, its local color has found a name. Mrs. Sibley has intimately felt both phases of her subject, and gives us brine and dialect, pathos and absurdity, with understanding, and for the most part in that pleasantest of all ways, the unannotated words of the actors. Her own appreciation of it all is kept in the background, leaving it naive to a degree which, if it sometimes reaches thinness, yet always tinkles true. It is, furthermore, mainly cheerful, and that is much in a day when finding a book to lend an invalid is a baffling problem. Even an invalid will be willing to endure the few touching pages

for the sake of elsewhere reading of the man who was "double peculiar," or of her who "often said to him as feelin' as I could, 'Was your wife's health mostly pretty good 'fore she died?'"

To know that a book of stories is published as a puzzle in authorship is to set the mind in a guessing attitude, and almost to "impossibilite" (as Dr. Donne says) cool judgment of them as literary matter. Nevertheless it is the reviewer's office to forget the question "Who's who?" and to ignore the almighty-dollar issues of the answers. Renouncing the inclination to point out real or fancied indications of origin, he must leave it to a happier public to conjecture whether here lies the mark of the Churchill or there the trail of the Twain. The plan of the symposium is novel. Stories have been dramatized before this (and worms have eaten them), but it is a new venture to dramatize the storytellers themselves and cast them for parts in a rain-bound house-party. Mr. Ford, who alone is unmasked, plays his part of introducer with as much lightness and ease as such a rôle can command. "Aunt Nancy's Annuity" we think the gem of the collection, while "Dawson's Dilemma," "Mother," and "A Surrender" excel, each in its way. Indeed, there is not one out-and-out dull story in the series, though some more than others must have served to reconcile the company to the return of fair weather.

Alice Brown's latest book has the merits and demerits of earlier work of hers noticed in these columns. But the former gain. The hold is firmer, the "Meredithyrambics" are fewer. 'Margaret Warrener' stands noticeable among recent minor novels. It convinces at sight of the writer's divining power as to human motives, her understanding of the blended weakness and strength that spoil lives, "quietly, without noise," as De Grignon says in the play, and of the tragedies that make noise and do not seem to spoil anything. The story is sufficiently interesting to float the human-nature study which constitutes the real strength of the book. It wavers from time to time, and taxes credulity, perhaps, in places, but not in a way to irritate. The scene lies in a metropolitan Bohemia (Boston, disguised by a gauze veil), where artists and writers work and play together. To enumerate the characters—poet, actress, painter, journalist—seems to be naming a hackneyed *dramatis personæ*; but these are no hackneyed types, nor are they often impossible. The greatly aspiring and self-renouncing Margaret may do incredible things, but she is not incredible. The essentially noble Brandon, with his "nine or ten masquerading selves," is the novelistic guardian angel in a form that is new from its very truth to his more complex side. Perhaps his shoulder-wings are something over-prominent for so human a creature, but he is delightful. The old doctor and his sister are guardian angels, too, whose big wings sit naturally, but they are kept within healthy mortal limits. The world must grow older and colder before it consents to part with the omniscient doctor in fiction. The millionaire, prospering on soap, but shipwrecked in stock speculations, though so familiar to the ear, moves here without exaggeration in fresh paths. Even the *ingénue*, the singer who has

lost her voice, displays an unexpected originality of character when her crisis time occurs. The central figure of darkness, the woman journalist, "promoter," and converter of blood into copy, plays the vampire with such plausible gleams of altruism that it was no wonder she attracted and warmed the breadwinners whom she intermittently helped. The feeble, faithless Llandaff, like many other heroes of novels, seems hardly justification for such good red devotion as Margaret lavished on him. We find ourselves forced to take for granted his powers of "luring sirens out of the wave." Remembering Titania and Bottom, however, we say no more. The few pages of hospital experience are done with remarkable effectiveness. In fact, this writer shows a great power of getting quietly behind the truths of life, be they mental or physical, and pushing them forward through her pages into the prick of instant recognition. Even he who exclaims, "How unlikely!" is sure to add, "How true!"

The tale of a Murano glassmaker in 1470 affords Mr. Crawford one of his most characteristic opportunities. Venice of the past, Venetian color on land and sea, a touch of history, a hint of politics, a panorama of manners and fashions, the great glass-making art with its secrets and rivalries, a glow of costuming, a glitter of jewels, little shivers of fraud and conspiracy, a love-tale running rough just long enough to acquire an impetus for smooth sliding at last—these are the features of a pleasant tale pleasantly told. Mr. Crawford's intimacy with his period as ever conveys itself to the reader, who feels admitted to the inner circle of Venetian interests in the fifteenth century. His characters stand well apart in their several personalities spite of a tongue common to them all; for all, whether fair lady or gondolier, Doge, Dalmatian, Georgian slave, patrician of Venice, or Greek pirate, speak Crawford. He, as is his wont, writes as if he had taken to heart Lord Chesterfield's dictum that "everything should be done in minuet time." There is no "sick hurry" in these well-conducted pages. Here one may enjoy history, millinery, and blood-curdling in good form and with gentlemanly leisure.

Richard Wagner, his Life and his Dramas.

By W. J. Henderson. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Great as is the number of books on Richard Wagner, Mr. Henderson has succeeded in adding one to the list which occupies a place of its own. He has studied the wants of opera-goers, and has endeavored to meet them all in a single volume of 504 pages. He has "told the story of Wagner's life, explained his artistic aims, given the history of each of his great works, examined its literary sources, shown how Wagner utilized them, and set forth the meaning and purpose of its principal ideas." Though much condensation was necessary in telling the story of Wagner's multitudinous adventures in 153 pages, the author has succeeded in making these chapters entertaining, by careful selection of the more important episodes. He has made good use of the materials supplied by various predecessors, but in some cases missed the chance of improving on them by utilizing interesting disclosures made in letters of Hans von

Bülow and Liszt, in Wagner's letters to Heckel and Wesendonck, and in Weissheimer's volume on Wagner, all published in recent years.

Mr. Henderson's estimate of Wagner as a man and a composer has undergone considerable change since he first began to write about him. Familiarity with biographic facts and with the operas has bred more and more admiration. At one time inclined to side with the peculiarly shallow estimate of Wagner's personality made by Jullien, he now assumes a much more sympathetic and yet judicial attitude. While setting forth on one page his foibles more clearly than any other biographer has done, he shows in the chapter on "The Character of the Man" a deep insight into Wagner's mind and the causes that shaped his attitude toward the world. If Wagner "possessed the gentle art of making enemies as few other men could, yet he was highly successful in gaining friends, and those whom he got he kept." By way of accounting for Wagner's irritability, Mr. Henderson might have dwelt more on the hostile criticisms which constantly ruffled his temper. But, after all, his disappointment was caused less by these direct attacks than by "the failure of the world to grasp his ideals." The author believes that this disappointment would have continued had he lived longer. "Even now only a few ardent lovers of the loftiest things in art have entered fully into the spirit of his conceptions."

A unique feature of Mr. Henderson's book is a full record of first casts in the case of every Wagner opera, in both Europe and America. In the latter case the records could not be made quite complete because the journalists of twenty-five years ago "did not realize their obligations to posterity." However, this is no great calamity; the missing names were probably of fifth-rate singers. A clear account is given (pp. 77-79) of the Praeger-Ellis controversy. Exception may be made to the statement (p. 118) that "Tristan und Isolde" "never was really sung until within the last half-dozen years." Vogl sang the rôle admirably; and how about Wagner's idol, Schnorr? Mr. Henderson himself supplies evidence in a footnote, ten pages further on, that Schnorr had a beautiful, sweet voice, and that "he approached in his singing the manner of Jean de Reszke."

In commenting on the music of Wagner's operas, the author follows the sensible plan of printing some of the leading motives in musical type, but not all of them; and he properly emphasizes the fact that while it is an advantage to know these motives and their significance, one can enjoy Wagner's music without having them all by heart. But the most important feature of Mr. Henderson's book is that he everywhere champions Wagner's idea that "the play's the thing," and the music merely its illustration and intensification. He has a thorough appreciation of Wagner's originality and power as a poet. Many opera-goers, perhaps, do not care much about the sources of the poems which underlie their favorite works; but they cannot fail to be interested in Mr. Henderson's comparisons showing how, in every case, Wagner, the dramatist, improved on his poetic predecessors. Concerning the "Flying Dutchman," he says justly: "He ceased to be a mere libretto-writer, and became a dramatic poet. His

version of the famous old legend is a lovely one, and much of its increased beauty is the product of his own genius." Concerning "Tannhäuser" Mr. Henderson goes so far as to maintain that the music commands less admiration than the book. He "wrote no mightier tragedy than this." Tannhäuser's narrative "is the climax of power in the opera, one of the most intensely tragic pieces of writing in all dramatic literature." In the case of "Lohengrin" the reader is shown act by act how skilfully Wagner used his borrowed poetic themes, and made them dramatic by ingenious improvements. The author sees the true humor of "Die Meistersinger," and says regarding the great Tetralogy: "His reconstruction of the story of the end of the gods, of their release from the burden of sin by a voluntary, vicarious sacrifice, raises the poetic issue of his drama to a plane far above the conceptions of the old Norse and Teutonic skalds. With 'Der Ring des Nibelungen,' in spite of its defects, Wagner set himself beside the Greek dramatists." But it is for "Tristan" that Mr. Henderson reserves his most glowing enthusiasm:

"As is invariably the case, his treatment of the story draws together all the beauties of the original material, and moulds them into a compact, consistent whole, instinct with dramatic force and poetic beauty. In attempting to set forth the Wagnerian arrangement of materials, I find it difficult to proceed coolly and systematically. There is a witchery in this marvellous drama of fatal love that masters my mind. 'Tristan and Isolde' is a drama of human emotions, uttered in tones. As such it must be conceded a place among the mightiest conceptions of the poetic brain."

A History of Architecture in Italy, from the Time of Constantine to the Dawn of the Renaissance. By Charles A. Cummings, Member of the Boston Society of Architects, Fellow of the American Institute of Architects. With nearly five hundred illustrations. In two volumes, pp. xix, 314; ix, 325. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

Mr. Cummings's book is one of descriptions, full, careful, minute, of a great number of Italian buildings. It is composed as if intended to be published without illustrations, or with few illustrations; and, as there are 462 pictures, most of them half-tones, it happens rather often that the reader is told in words, at some length, what the photograph shows sufficiently well. A certain farther elaboration of the text might have caused the verbal and the pictured account of the building to work together for enlightenment with a more perfect harmony of purpose. Apart from this there is no fault to be found with the descriptions, as such. They are long enough, but not too long, and their relative length is well proportioned. As the description flows on, the doubtful points are well stated, with a shrewd discrimination between the probable and the wholly unsettled. The Tomb of Theodoric at Ravenna has greatly interested the author, and he devotes to it two pages of text with three cuts, and here the serious uncertainty that exists with regard to the original form and character of that unique building is perfectly well stated. In all this there is only one more point to make as to less satisfactory quality, and it is as follows: When, as on pages 254-5 of vol-

ume i., the exterior of Saint Mark's is in the way of being described, it is an obvious omission that "the lion of St. Mark on a blue ground of mosaic" and "the ogee gables [in itself a faulty phrase] decorated with wildly extravagant crockets" and the general effect "of indescribable strangeness," are not mentioned as accessories of much later date than the mass of its chief details, and as all apart from the original design. It is, of course, well that the description of the church as it is should be given fully; one could even wish that the church as Ruskin and other enthusiasts saw it in 1850, or even in 1870, were contrasted with the less fascinating building of the days since the late restoration; but what is especially needed here is something more than any one description, and the successive additions of the eleventh, fourteenth, and succeeding centuries need to be discriminated.

The book is thoroughly in sympathy with the nobler works of the art it deals with, as with the humble efforts of the beginners. This sympathy would not be perfect were it not for the author's readiness to see and recognize what is strong, what is original, what must have been very novel in building. Even in the case of perfectly well-known monuments, this readiness to look into the essence of the thing and to note the brilliancy of one and another design of long ago is most remarkable, and on this account, very largely, the book seems to be almost all that the general reader on subjects of fine art could possibly require. Indeed, the only change which, from this point of view, it is seen to require, is a little more attention to references from one passage to another, in description or in criticism.

The Sovereign Herb: A History of Tobacco. By W. A. Penn. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

How men first came to smoke tobacco is not known; but two things are clear: that the practice was originally a religious rite, and that it was brought in the sixteenth century from America to Europe, whence it spread to Asia. All three modes of using the weed—cigars, pipes, and snuff—were found in vogue among the natives by the earliest discoverers. In the narrative of the first voyage of Columbus, we are told of the astonishment of the Spaniards at seeing the natives of San Salvador puffing cigars, or rather enormous cigarettes. On his second voyage, the islanders were observed snuffing the powdered leaf through a hollow cane. On the mainland, pipe-smoking was the universal custom, but still retaining much of a ritualistic character. So tobacco went to Spain as cigars, to France (through Jean Nicot) as snuff, and was carried to England with the pipe by Ralph Lane, Governor of Virginia, on his return in 1586. Raleigh, though he adopted the practice, was not (as is often stated) its introducer. England gave it to the Dutch, and the Dutch carried it to the Spice Islands and farthest Cathay, so that, almost before the century closed, tobacco had girdled the world. Not, however, without opposition. King James's futile crusade against the weed had no effect except to stimulate poets like Jonson, Ford, Sylvester, and smaller fry to curry court favor by satirical abuse of smoking

and smokers. Shakspeare never alludes to the practice; and his silence may be interpreted either way. Sultans, shahs, khalifs, and czars put forth their might against it, and Pope Urban launched a bull against its use, but all in vain; the frail, withered leaf was stronger than popes and kings.

As Mr. Penn has omitted the famous anecdote associated with this bull of Urban's, we venture to retell it, old as it is. On the publication of the bull, a paper was found affixed to the statue of Pasquill, containing the text: "Contra folium ostendis potentiam tuam, et stipulam siccam persequeris?" (Job, xiii, 25). Urban made proclamation that, if the author would declare himself, he should receive reward. On the next morning the pasquill was found signed "Job."

Despite both spiritual and secular fulminations, tobacco held its own, and even—what few monarchs have done—conquered the Church. The present Pope takes snuff, the finest in the world, which is specially made for him in Baltimore. But fashions in tobacco-taking, as in other things, have varied. In the eighteenth century the pipe sank in reputation in England, and the snuff-box arose. On the Continent, snuff had always been aristocratic, and leaders of fashion had rivalled each other in the costliness and beauty of their boxes, the exquisite flavor of their contents, and the grace with which the pinch was inhaled. England never quite attained these high levels of elegance, and in the nineteenth century went back to the cigar. The Crimean war brought in the cigarette, the use of which the English had learned from their allies, and in late years the pipe has come once more into favor.

The forms of pipes are bewildering in their variety, but, for simplicity (and we might almost say sublimity of conception), that of the Bechuanas surely bears the palm. The native, wanting a smoke, selects a patch of damp clay soil, on which he lays a slender switch and packs clay over it, after which he draws out the switch, and the pipe is made. All he has to do is to burn some tobacco over one end of the tunnel, and apply his mouth to the other. The favorite pipe at the present day seems

to be the brier, made from the root of a species of heath growing on the shores of the Mediterranean. The wood has a beautiful grain and color, imparts no taste to the smoke, and is practically incombustible. Smokers who have fine briers will do well to cherish them, as our author tells us that the supply will be exhausted in ten years. The meerscham is the aristocrat of pipes. The material is a fine magnesians clay found in Asia Minor, and the pipe must be carved from the natural block, after which it is treated with various fatty substances which produce the mellow brown tints dear to the smoker. Vienna is the headquarters of the manufacture, though its birthplace is at Pesth, where the coloring effect of wax was accidentally discovered more than a hundred and fifty years ago.

The finest and costliest tobacco in the world is grown in a very limited district in Cuba. According to Mr. Penn, not more than 30,000 cigars of the very highest grade are turned out every year, to be the luxury of kings and millionaires. A dazzling prospect, however, is offered us by a German chemist who has discovered that the flavors of tobaccos are produced by microbes associated with the process of fermentation, and that, by proper inoculation, he can give the vilest *mundungus* the aroma of the choicest product of the Vuelta Abajo.

Both those who use and those who abuse tobacco will find entertainment and information in this little book, from which they may rise either with livelier gratitude for the bounties of nature, or with keener regrets at the perverseness of man.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Austin, Mary S. Philip Freneau, the Poet of the Revolution. A. Wessels Co. \$2.50.
Belloc, Hilaire. Robespierre: A Study. Scribners. \$2.
Blood, H. A. Selected Poems. Washington: The Neale Pub. Co. \$1.
Bradish, Sarah P. Stories of Country Life. (Eclectic School Readings.) American Book Co. 40 cents.
Brinton, D. G. The Basis of Social Relations. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.
Crew, Henry, and Taitnall, R. R. A Laboratory Manual of Physics. Macmillan. 90 cents.
Cushing, F. H. Zuni Folk Tales. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$3.50.
Edwards, O. M. Wales. (The Story of the Nations.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.35.
Eisenwein, J. B. How to Attract and Hold an Audience. Hinds & Noble. \$1.

Graham, G. E. Schley and Santiago. Chicago: W. B. Conkey Co.
Graham, H. G. Scottish Men of Letters in the Eighteenth Century. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. \$4.50.
Giff, A. P. O. A List of Books on Samoa and Guam. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Grundy, G. B. The Great Persian War and its Preliminaries. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. \$5.
Guide to the Great Siberian Railway. St. Petersburg: Artistic Printing Society; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 13 shillings.
Halle, Ernst von. Volks- und Seewirtschaft. 2 vols. Berlin: Ernst Siegfried Mittler und Sohn.
Haworth, P. J. Körner's Zriny. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35 cents.
Hotchkiss, C. C. The Strength of the Weak. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.50.
Huddleston, J. H. Lessons from Greek Pottery. Macmillan. \$1.25.
Jebb, R. C. Modern Greece. Macmillan. \$1.75.
Joynes, E. S. Heyse's Niels mit der offenen Hand. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Kingsford, C. L. Henry V., the Typical Medieval Hero. (Heroes of the Nations.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.35.
Laub, M. T. The Mormons and their Bible. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. 25 cents.
Leavitt, R. G. Outlines of Botany. American Book Co. \$1.
Leighton, J. A. Typical Modern Conceptions of God. Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.10.
Lewis, A. H. Sunday Legislation. New ed. D. Appleton & Co.
McGiffert, Rev. A. O. The Apostles' Creed. Scribners. \$1.25.
Mackinder, H. J. Britain and the British Seas. D. Appleton & Co. \$2.
McLaughlin, J. M. Elements and Notation of Music. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Maulde la Clavière, R. de. The Art of Life. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.75.
Meier, W. H. D. Herbarium and Plant Description. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Mellick, Anna C. Latin Composition. American Book Co. 40 cents.
Morris, Zoe A. The Color of his Soul. Funk & Wagnalls Co. \$1.
Muir, H. D. Songs and Other Fancies. Chicago: Published by the Author.
Ogilvie, Robert. Horæ Latine: Studies in Synonyms and Syntax. Longmans, Green & Co. \$5.
Paine, A. B. The Great White Way. J. F. Taylor & Co. \$1.50.
Patten, S. N. The Theory of Prosperity. Macmillan. \$1.25.
Perry, Frances M. Four American Inventors. Werner School Book Co.
Porter, Charlotte, and Clarke, Helen A. Shakespeare Studies: Macbeth. American Book Co. 56 cents.
Rainy, Robert. The Ancient Catholic Church. (International Theological Library.) Scribners. \$2.50.
Ravenstein, E. G. The Strange Adventures of Andrew Battell of Leigh, in Angola and the Adjoining Regions. London: The Hakluyt Society.
Rodkinson, M. L. New Edition of the Babylonian Talmud. Vol. v. (xlii.). New Talmud Pub. Co.
Sanborn, F. B. The Personality of Thoreau. Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed.
Schelling, F. E. The English Chronicle Play. Macmillan. \$2.
Silva, T., and Fourcaut, A. Lectura y Conversación. American Book Co. 60 cents.
Small, Herbert. Handbook of the New Library of Congress. Boston: Curtis & Cameron.
Smeaton, Oliphant. The Medici and the Italian Renaissance. (The World's Epoch-Makers.) Scribners. \$1.25.
Sousa, J. P. The Fifth String. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
The Report of the Earl of Durham, Her Majesty's High Commissioner and Governor-General of British North America. London: Methuen & Co. 7s. 6d.
White, Michael. Lachmi Bai, Rani of Jhansi: The Jeanne d'Arc of India. J. F. Taylor & Co. \$1.50.

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The BOOK for PRINCE HENRY

A little episode, interesting to the literary world, occurred recently in Berlin. Prince Henry of Prussia called at the American Embassy to discuss with Ambassador White his projected tour in the United States of America. His Highness is keenly interested in being well posted beforehand. In the course of his visit the Prince was recommended to peruse the standard handbook by Bryce, and was urged to read also

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